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ABSTRACT

The work of the United Nations is described in summary form. Material is divided into sections on the origin, programs, purpose, principles, and structure of the United Nations; the United Nations at work for International Peace; the United Nations at Work for Economic and Social Development; The United Nations at Work for Decolonization; the United Nations at Work for Human Rights; the United Nations at Work for International Law; and Intergovernmental Agencies. Each section contains paragraph overviews of relevant issues, developments, and United Nations efforts. For example, the section on international peace contains short descriptions of peace efforts in Afghanistan, Kampuchea, the Middle East, Cyprus, South Asia, the Congo, and Korea as well as discussions on disarmament, outer space, and the law of the sea. The section on international law includes coverage of judicial settlements, codification of international law, and international trade law. Appendices include a list of abbreviations, United Nations membership, United Nations information centers, and additional readings. (LP)

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FOREWORD

In the nearly four decades since the United Nations was founded, the world has changed greatly and with it the United Nations itself. From the original fifty-one Member States in 1945, the Organization's membership has more than tripled, reflecting in large part the virtual end of colonial empires and the achievement of independence by the majority of countries.

This in turn has led to changing concepts of world priorities, to the search for new solutions to mankind's age-old problems and to new ways of meeting basic human needs for food and shelter and for freedom from want and fear.

Through all these changes, the United Nations Charter, to whose purposes and principles all Member States subscribe, has stood as a guide along the road to peace and co-operation among nations.

This book describes in summary form the work of the United Nations—for international peace and security, for economic and social development, for human rights, for decolonization and for the rule of law. It is addressed particularly to the generations born since the end of the Second World War to whom a new world order offers opportunities unknown in the past. It is my hope that readers of this book will gain from it a fuller understanding of the meaning of the United Nations and a greater grasp of its effort and goals.

Javier Pérez de Cuéllar
Secretary-General

THE UNITED NATIONS — ORIGIN, PURPOSES AND PRINCIPLES, STRUCTURE

The name "United Nations" was devised by President Franklin D. Roosevelt and was first used in the "Declaration by United Nations" of 1 January 1942, during the Second World War, when representatives of 26 nations pledged their Governments to continue fighting together against the Axis Powers.

The United Nations Charter was drawn up by the representatives of 50 countries at the United Nations Conference on International Organization, which met at San Francisco from 25 April to 26 June 1945. They deliberated on the basis of proposals worked out by the representatives of China, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom and the United States at Dumbarton Oaks in August-October 1944. The Charter was signed on 26 June 1945, by the representatives of the 50 countries; Poland, not represented at the Conference, signed it later and became one of the original 51 Member States.

The United Nations officially came into existence on 24 October 1945, when the Charter had been ratified by China, France, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom and the United States and by a majority of other signatories; 24 October is celebrated each year as United Nations Day.

Preamble to the Charter

The Preamble to the Charter expresses the ideals and common aims of all the peoples whose Governments joined together to form the United Nations:

WE THE PEOPLES OF THE UNITED NATIONS

determined

to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war, which twice in our lifetime has brought untold sorrow to mankind, and

to reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women and of nations large and small, and

to establish conditions under which justice and respect for the obligations arising from treaties and other sources of international law can be maintained, and

to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom, *and for these ends*

to practice tolerance and live together in peace with one another as good neighbours, and

to unite our strength to maintain international peace and security, and

to ensure, by the acceptance of principles and the institution of methods, that armed force shall not be used, save in the common interest, and

to employ international machinery for the promotion of the economic and social advancement of all peoples,

have resolved to combine our efforts to accomplish these aims.

Accordingly, our respective Governments, through representatives assembled in the city of San Francisco, who have exhibited their full powers found to be in good and due form, have agreed to the present Charter of the United Nations and do hereby establish an international organization to be known as the United Nations.

Purposes and principles

The purposes of the United Nations, as set forth in the Charter, are:

– to maintain international peace and security;

– to develop friendly relations among nations;

– to co-operate internationally in solving international economic, social, cultural and humanitarian problems and in promoting respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms;

– to be a centre for harmonizing the actions of nations in attaining these common ends.

The United Nations acts in accordance with the following principles:

– It is based on the sovereign equality of all its Members.

– All Members are to fulfil in good faith their Charter obligations.

– They are to settle their international disputes by peaceful means and without endangering peace, security and justice.

– They are to refrain in their international relations from the threat or use of force against any other State.

– They are to give the United Nations every assistance in any action it takes in accordance with the Charter, and shall not assist States against which the United Nations is taking preventive or enforcement action.

– The United Nations shall ensure that States which are not Members act in accordance with these principles in so far as it is necessary for the maintenance of international peace and security.

– Nothing in the Charter is to authorize the United Nations to intervene in matters which are essentially within the domestic jurisdiction of any State.

Membership

Membership of the United Nations is open to all peace-loving nations which accept the obligations of the United Nations Charter and, in the judgment of the Organization, are able and willing to carry out these obligations. *(For list of Member States, see page 126.)*

New Members are admitted by the General Assembly on the recommendation of the Security Council. The Charter provides for the suspension or expulsion of a Member for violation of the principles of the Charter, but no such action has ever been taken since the establishment of the Organization.

Amendments to the Charter

The Charter can be amended by a vote of two thirds of the Members of the General Assembly and ratification by two thirds of the Members of the United Nations, including the five permanent members of the Security Council. So far, the Charter has been amended five times:

—in 1965, the membership of the Security Council was increased from 11 to 15 (Article 23) and the number of affirmative votes of the Council on procedural matters was increased from seven to nine and on all other matters from seven to nine including the concurring votes of the five permanent members (Article 27);

—in 1965, the membership of the Economic and Social Council was increased from 18 to 27 and, in 1973, was further increased to 54 (Article 61);

—in 1968, the number of votes required in the Security Council to convene a General Conference to review the Charter was increased from seven to nine (Article 109).

Official languages

Under the Charter the official languages of the United Nations are Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish. Arabic has been added as an official language of the General Assembly, the Security Council and the Economic and Social Council.

Structure of the Organization

The Charter established six principal organs of the United Nations: the General Assembly, the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council, the Trusteeship Council, the International Court of Justice and the Secretariat.

GENERAL ASSEMBLY. The General Assembly is the main deliberative organ. It is composed of representatives of all Member States, each of which has one vote. Decisions on important questions, such as recommendations on peace and security, admission of new Members and budgetary matters, require a two-thirds majority. Decisions on other questions are reached by a simple majority.

Functions and powers. Under the Charter, the functions and powers of the General Assembly include the following:

—to consider and make recommendations on the principles of co-operation in the maintenance of international peace and security, including the principles governing disarmament and the regulation of armaments;

—to discuss any question relating to international peace and security and, except where a dispute or situation is currently being discussed by the Security Council, to make recommendations on it;

—to discuss and, with the same exception, to make recommendations on any question within the scope of the Charter or affecting the powers and functions of any organ of the United Nations;

—to initiate studies and make recommendations to promote international political co-operation, the development of international law and its codification, the realization of human rights and fundamental freedoms for all, and international collaboration in economic, social, cultural, educational and health fields;

—to make recommendations for the peaceful settlement of any situation, regardless of origin, which might impair friendly relations among nations;

—to receive and consider reports from the Security Council and other organs of the United Nations;

—to consider and approve the budget of the United Nations and to apportion the contributions among Members;

—to elect the non-permanent members of the Security Council, the members of the Economic and Social Council and those members of the Trusteeship Council that are elected; to elect jointly with the Security Council the judges of the International Court of Justice; and, on the recommendation of the Security Council, to appoint the Secretary-General.

Under the "Uniting for peace" resolution adopted by the General Assembly in November 1950, the Assembly may take action if the Security Council, because of a lack of unanimity of its permanent members, fails to act in a case where there appears to be a threat to the peace, breach of the peace or act of aggression. The Assembly is empowered to consider the matter immediately with a view to making recommendations to Members for collective measures, including, in the case of a breach of the peace or act of aggression, the use of armed force when necessary to maintain or restore international peace and security.

Sessions. The General Assembly's regular session begins each year on the third Tuesday in September and continues usually until mid-December. At the start of each regular session, the Assembly elects a new President, 21 Vice-Presidents and the Chairmen of the Assembly's seven Main Committees. To ensure equitable geographical representation, the Presidency of the Assembly rotates each year among five groups of States—African, Asian, Eastern European, Latin American, and Western European and other States.

In addition to its regular sessions, the Assembly may meet in special sessions at the request of the Security Council, of a majority of Members of the United Nations or of one Member if the majority of Members concurs. Emergency special sessions may be called within 24 hours of a request by the Security Council on the vote of any nine members of the Council or by a majority of the United Nations Members or by one Member if the majority of Members concurs.

At the beginning of each regular session, the Assembly holds a general debate, in which Member States express their views on a wide range of matters of international concern. Because of the great number of questions which the Assembly is called upon to consider (142 separate agenda items at the 1982 session of the Assembly, for example), the Assembly allocates most questions to its seven Main Committees: First Committee (disarmament and related international security matters); Special Political Committee; Second Committee (economic and financial matters); Third Committee (social, humanitarian and cultural matters; Fourth Committee (decolonization matters); Fifth Committee (administrative and budgetary matters); and Sixth Committee (legal matters).

There is also a General Committee, composed of the President and 21 Vice-Presidents of the Assembly and the Chairmen of the seven Main Committees, and a Credentials Committee, appointed by the President at each session.

Some questions are considered only in plenary, rather than in one of the Main Committees, and all questions are voted on in plenary, usually towards the end of the regular session, after the committees have completed their consideration of them and submitted draft resolutions to the plenary.

Voting in committees is by a simple majority. In plenary, resolutions may be adopted by acclamation, without objection or without a vote or the vote may be recorded or by roll call.

While the decisions of the Assembly have no binding legal force for Governments, they carry the weight of world opinion on major international issues, as well as the moral authority of the world community.

The work of the United Nations year-round derives largely from the decisions of the General Assembly—that is to say, the will of the majority of the Members as expressed in resolutions adopted by the Assembly. That work is carried out:

—by committees and other bodies established by the Assembly to study and report on specific issues, such as disarmament, outer space, peace-keeping, decolonization, human rights and *apartheid*;

—in international conferences called for by the Assembly; and

—by the Secretariat of the United Nations—the Secretary-General and his staff of international civil servants.

SECURITY COUNCIL. The Security Council has primary responsibility, under the Charter, for the maintenance of international peace and security. The Council has 15 members: five permanent members—China, France, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom and the United States—and 10 elected by the General Assembly for two-year terms.

Each member of the Council has one vote. Decisions on procedural matters are made by an affirmative vote of at least nine of the 15 members. Decisions on substantive matters require nine votes including the concurring votes of all five permanent members. This is the rule of "great Power unanimity" often referred to as the "veto" power. All five permanent members have exercised the veto right at one time or another. If a permanent member does not support a decision but does not wish to block it through a veto, it may abstain.

Under the Charter, all Members of the United Nations agree to accept and carry out the decisions of the Security Council. While other organs of the United Nations make recommendations to Governments, the Council alone has the power to take decisions which Member States are obligated under the Charter to carry out.

Functions and powers. Under the Charter, the functions and powers of the Security Council are:

—to maintain international peace and security in accordance with the principles and purposes of the United Nations;

—to investigate any dispute or situation which might lead to international friction;

—to recommend methods of adjusting such disputes or the terms of settlement;

—to formulate plans for the establishment of a system to regulate armaments;

—to determine the existence of a threat to the peace or act of aggression and to recommend what action should be taken;

—to call on Members to apply economic sanctions and other measures not involving the use of force in order to prevent or stop aggression;

—to take military action against an aggressor;

—to recommend the admission of new Members and the terms on which States may become parties to the Statute of the International Court of Justice;

—to exercise the Trusteeship functions of the United Nations in "strategic areas";

—to recommend to the General Assembly the appointment of the Secretary-General and, together with the Assembly, to elect the judges of the International Court.

The Security Council is so organized as to be able to function continuously, and a representative of each of its members must be present at all times at United Nations Headquarters. The Council may meet elsewhere than at Headquarters if it considers this advisable; in 1972, it held a session in Addis Ababa, and the following year, it met in Panama.

When a complaint concerning a threat to peace is brought before it, the Council's first action is usually to recommend that the parties try to reach agreement by peaceful means. In some cases, the Council itself undertakes investigation and mediation. It may appoint special representatives or request the Secretary-General to do so or to use his good offices. In some cases, it may set forth principles for a peaceful settlement.

When a dispute leads to fighting, the Council's first concern is to bring this to an end as soon as possible. On many occasions since the United Nations was founded, the Council has issued cease-fire directives which have been instrumental in preventing wider hostilities in many parts of the world. It also sends United Nations peace-keeping forces to help reduce tensions in troubled areas, keep opposing forces apart and create conditions of calm in which peaceful settlements may be sought. The Council may decide on enforcement measures, economic sanctions (such as trade embargoes) or collective military action.

A Member State against which preventive or enforcement action has been taken by the Security Council may be suspended from the exercise of the rights and privileges of membership by the General Assembly upon the recommendation of the Security Council. A Member State which has persistently violated the principles contained in the Charter may be expelled from the United Nations by the Assembly on the recommendation of the Council.

A State which is a Member of the United Nations but not of the Security Council may participate, without vote, in its discussions when the Council considers that that country's interests are specially affected. Both Members of the United Nations and non-Members, if they are parties to a dispute being considered by the Council, are invited to take part, without vote, in the discussions in the Council; the Council lays down the conditions for participation by a non-Member State.

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL. The Economic and Social Council was established by the Charter as the principal organ to co-ordinate the economic and social work of the United Nations and the specialized agencies and institutions—known as the "United Nations family" of organizations.

The Council has 54 members who serve for three years, 18 being elected each year for a three-year term to replace 18 members whose three-year term has expired.

Voting in the Economic and Social Council is by simple majority; each member has one vote.

Functions and powers. The functions and powers of the Economic and Social Council are:

—to serve as the central forum for the discussion of international economic and social issues of a global or inter-disciplinary nature and the formulation of policy recommendations on those issues addressed to Member States and to the United Nations system as a whole;

—to make or initiate studies, reports and recommendations on international economic, social, cultural, educational, health and related matters;

—to promote respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms for all;

—to call international conferences and prepare draft conventions for submission to the General Assembly on matters within its competence;

—to negotiate agreements with the specialized agencies, defining their relationship with the United Nations;

—to co-ordinate the activities of the specialized agencies by means of consultations with and recommendations to them and by means of recommendations to the General Assembly and the Members of the United Nations;

—to perform services, approved by the Assembly, for Members of the United Nations and, upon request, for the specialized agencies;

—to consult with non-governmental organizations concerned with matters with which the Council deals.

Sessions. The Economic and Social Council generally holds two month-long sessions each year, one in New York and the other in Geneva. The year-round work of the Council is carried out in its subsidiary bodies—commissions and committees—which meet at regular intervals and report back to the Council.

Subsidiary bodies. The subsidiary machinery of the Council includes:

—six functional commissions: the Statistical Commission, Population Commission, Commission for Social Development, and the Commissions on Human Rights, on the Status of Women, and on Narcotic Drugs;

—five regional commissions: the Economic Commission for Africa (headquartered in Addis Ababa), Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (Bangkok), Economic Commission for Europe (Geneva), Economic Commission for Latin America (Santiago) and Economic Commission for Western Asia (Baghdad);

—six standing committees: the Committee for Programme and Co-ordination and the Committees on Natural Resources, on Transnational Corporations, on Human Settlements, on Non-Governmental Organizations and on Negotiations with Intergovernmental Agencies; and

—a number of standing expert bodies on such subjects as crime prevention and control, development planning, tax treaties between developed and developing countries, and transport of dangerous goods.

Non-governmental organizations. Under the Charter, the Economic and Social Council may consult with non-governmental organizations which are concerned with matters within the Council's competence. The

Council recognizes that these organizations should have the opportunity to express their views and that they often have special experience or technical knowledge of value to the Council in its work.

Over 600 non-governmental organizations have consultative status with the Council. They are classified into three categories: category I organizations are those concerned with most of the Council's activities; category II organizations have special competence in specific fields of activity of the Council; and organizations on the Roster are those that can make an occasional contribution to the Council, its subsidiary organs or other United Nations bodies.

Non-governmental organizations which have been given consultative status may send observers to public meetings of the Council and its subsisidary bodies and may submit written statements relevant to the Council's work. They may also consult with the United Nations Secretariat on matters of mutual concern.

TRUSTEESHIP COUNCIL. In setting up an International Trusteeship System, the Charter established the Trusteeship Council as one of the main organs of the United Nations and assigned to it the task of supervising the administration of trust territories placed under the Trusteeship System. Major goals of the System are to promote the advancement of the inhabitants of trust territories and their progressive development towards self-government or independence.

The aims of the Trusteeship System have been fulfilled to such an extent that only one of the original 11 Trusteeships remains—the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands (administered by the United States). The others, mostly in Africa and the Pacific, have attained independence, either as separate States or by joining neighbouring independent countries.

The Trusteeship Council acts under the authority of the General Assembly or, in the case of a "strategic area", under the authority of the Security Council. Under the Charter, its total number of members must be equally divided between those members which administer Trust Territories and those which do not. As the number of administering countries has decreased, so has the size of the Council. There are now only five members: the United States (administering State) and the other permanent members of the Security Council (China, France, the Soviet Union and the United Kingdom). Being a strategic area, the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands falls within the responsibility of the Security Council.

Voting in the Trusteeship Council is by simple majority; each member has one vote.

The Council meets in annual sessions, usually in the late spring. It also holds special sessions when required.

Functions and powers. The Trusteeship Council is authorized to examine and discuss reports from the Administering Authority on the political, economic, social and educational advancement of the peo-

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ples of Trust Territories and, in consultation with the Administering Authority, to examine petitions from and undertake periodic and other special missions to Trust Territories.

INTERNATIONAL COURT OF JUSTICE. The International Court of Justice is the principal judicial organ of the United Nations. Its Statute is an integral part of the United Nations Charter.

The Court is open to the parties to its Statute, which automatically includes all Members of the United Nations. A State which is not a Member of the United Nations may become a party to the Statute on conditions determined in each case by the General Assembly upon the recommendation of the Security Council.

All countries which are parties to the Statute of the Court can be parties to cases before it. Other States can refer cases to it under conditions laid down by the Security Council. In addition, the Security Council may recommend that a legal dispute be referred to the Court.

Both the General Assembly and the Security Council can ask the Court for an advisory opinion on any legal question; other organs of the United Nations and the specialized agencies, when authorized by the General Assembly, can ask for advisory opinions on legal questions within the scope of their activities.

Jurisdiction. The jurisdiction of the Court covers all questions which States refer to it, and all matters provided for in the United Nations Charter or in treaties or conventions in force. States may bind themselves in advance to accept the jurisdiction of the Court in special cases, either by signing a treaty or convention which provides for reference to the Court or by making a special declaration to that effect. Such declarations accepting compulsory jurisdiction may exclude certain classes of cases.

In accordance with Article 38 of its Statute, the Court, in deciding disputes submitted to it, applies:

—international conventions establishing rules recognized by the contesting States;

—international custom as evidence of a general practice accepted as law;

—the general principles of law recognized by nations; and

—judicial decisions and the teachings of the most highly qualified publicists of the various nations, as a subsidiary means for determining the rules of law.

Membership. The Court consists of 15 Judges elected by the General Assembly and the Security Council, voting independently. They are chosen on the basis of their qualifications, not on the basis of nationality, and care is taken to ensure that the principal legal systems of the world are represented in the Court. No two Judges can be nationals of the same State. The Judges serve for a term of nine years and may be re-elected. They cannot engage in any other occupation during their term of office.

The Court normally sits in plenary, but it may also form smaller units called chambers if the parties so request. Judgments given by chambers are considered as rendered by the full Court.

The seat of the Court is at The Hague. *(See also page 99.)*

SECRETARIAT. The Secretariat services the other organs of the United Nations and administers the programmes and policies laid down by them. At its head is the Secretary-General, who is appointed by the General Assembly on the recommendation of the Security Council.

Secretary-General. The first Secretary-General of the United Nations was Trygve Lie, of Norway, who served until 1953. Dag Hammarskjöld, of Sweden, served from 1953 until his death in a plane crash in Africa in 1961. U Thant, of Burma, served as Secretary-General until 1971. He was succeeded by Kurt Waldheim, of Austria, who served from 1972 to 1981. The present Secretary-General is Javier Pérez de Cuéllar, of Peru, who took office on 1 January 1982.

As one of his many functions, the Secretary-General may bring to the attention of the Security Council any matter which, in his opinion, threatens international peace and security, and may use his good offices to help in resolving international disputes.

The Secretariat, an international staff of more than 16,000 men and women from some 150 countries, carries out the day-to-day work of the United Nations both at Headquarters in New York and in offices and centres around the world. As international civil servants, they work for the Organization as a whole; each takes an oath not to seek or receive instructions from any Government or outside authority. Under Article 100 of the Charter, each Member State undertakes to respect the exclusively international character of the responsibilities of the Secretary-General and the staff and not to seek to influence them in the discharge of their duties.

The work of the Secretariat is as varied as the list of problems dealt with by the United Nations. It includes: administering peacekeeping operations; organizing international conferences on problems of world-wide concern; surveying world economic and social trends and problems; preparing studies on such subjects as human rights, disarmament and development; and interpreting speeches, translating documents and servicing the world's communications media with information about the United Nations.

Budget of the United Nations

The regular programme budget of the United Nations is approved by the General Assembly biennially. The budget is submitted initially by the Secretary-General and reviewed by a 16-member expert committee—the Advisory Committee on Administrative and Budgetary Questions. The programmatic aspects are reviewed by the 21-member Committee for Programme and Co-ordination.

For the 1982-1983 biennium, the revised budget appropriations totalled $1,472,961,700, divided into ten main categories of expenditures, as follows (in United States dollars):

I.	Over-all policy-making, direction and co-ordination	38,849,500
II.	Political and Security Council affairs; peace-keeping activities	84,328,800
III.	Political affairs, trusteeship and decolonization	21,106,700
IV.	Economic, social and humanitarian activities	469,918,600
V.	International justice and law	22,018,500
VI.	Public information	64,635,000
VII.	Common support services (administration and management; conference and library services)	511,002,000
VIII.	United Nations bond issue	17,220,300
IX.	Staff assessment	207,802,500
X.	Capital expenditures (construction, alteration, improvement and major maintenance of premises)	36,081,800

Income estimates for the biennium 1982-1983, other than assessments on Member States, totalled $257,059,900:

I.	Income from staff assessment	211,123,800
II.	Other income (general income and revenue-producing activities	45,936,100

The main source of funds for the regular budget are the contributions of Member States, who are assessed on a scale specified by the Assembly on the recommendation of the 18-member Committee on Contributions. The fundamental criterion on which the scale of assessments is based is the real capacity to pay of Member States. The Assembly has fixed a maximum of 25 per cent of the budget for any one contributor and a minimum of 0.01 per cent. *(For scale of assessments of Member States, see table on page 126.)*

The regular programme budget to which these assessments apply covers expenses relating to substantive programmes, programme support and administrative activities of the Organization both at Headquarters and around the globe. Outside the regular budget, Member States are also assessed, in accordance with a modified version of the basic scale, for the costs of the United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon and the United Nations Disengagement Observer Force in the Middle East.

Many other United Nations activities are financed mainly by voluntary contributions outside the regular budget. The six largest programmes in this category are the United Nations Development Programme, the World Food Programme, the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, the United Nations Children's Fund, the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East, and the United Nations Fund for Population Activities.

THE UNITED NATIONS AT WORK
FOR INTERNATIONAL PEACE AND SECURITY

The United Nations Charter incorporates the solemn declaration that the peoples of the United Nations are determined to live together in peace and to unite their strength to maintain international peace and security.

Under the Charter, the Security Council is given primary responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and for the specific settlement of disputes through such methods as mediation, good offices and adjudication, stationing of military observers and peace-keeping forces. These are discussed under "Peace-making and peace-keeping" below.

Promotion of peace

The elaboration of principles or norms for the promotion of peace is carried out primarily by the General Assembly under Article 11 of the Charter, which states that: "The General Assembly may consider the general principles of co-operation in the maintenance of international peace and security ... and may make recommendations with regard to such principles to the Members or to the Security Council or to both".

In exercising this responsibility, the General Assembly has, since its earliest sessions, often reaffirmed and elaborated principles relating to the maintenance of peace. The main resolutions and declarations on peace, the peaceful settlement of disputes and international co-operation in strengthening peace adopted by the Assembly over the years include the following:

—the 1949 *Essentials of peace* resolution, which declares that disregard of the basic principles for an enduring peace laid down in the Charter "is primarily responsible for the continuance of international tension";

—the 1957 *Peaceful and neighbourly relations among States* resolution, which stresses the need to develop friendly co-operation and peaceful relations among States irrespective of their divergencies;

—the 1965 *Declaration on the Inadmissibility of Intervention in the Domestic Affairs of States and the Protection of Their Independence and Sovereignty*, which condemns all forms of such intervention as contrary to the principles of the Charter and a threat to universal peace;

—the 1965 *Declaration on the Promotion among Youth of the Ideals of Peace, Mutual Respect and Understanding between Peoples*, which stresses that young people should be brought up in the spirit of peace and that all means of education, including family guidance, should foster among youth the ideals of peace;

—the 1970 *Declaration on the Strengthening of International Security*, in which Member States are urged to make full use of the means and methods provided for in the Charter for the peaceful settlement of disputes and to agree on guidelines for more effective peace-keeping operations;

—the 1970 *Declaration on Principles of International Law concerning Friendly Relations and Co-operation among States in accordance with the Charter of the United Nations*, which sets forth seven principles, including the principle that States shall refrain from the threat or use of force against any State and the principle that States shall settle their international disputes by peaceful means;

—the 1974 *Definition of Aggression*, which calls upon States to refrain from all acts of aggression and recommends that the Security Council should be guided by the Definition in determining the existence of an act of aggression;

—the 1977 *Declaration on the Deepening and Consolidation of International Détente*, in which Member States declare their determination to strive to remove both causes and effects of international tension and to strengthen the role of the United Nations in maintaining international peace;

—the 1978 *Declaration on the Preparation of Societies for Life in Peace*, in which the Assembly invited States to base their activities on the recognition of the need to establish, maintain and strengthen a just and durable peace, and called upon States to ensure that their policies are compatible with the goal of preparing entire societies and, in particular, the young generations, for life in peace;

—the 1981 *Declaration on the Inadmissibility of Intervention and Interference in the Internal Affairs of States*, in which the Assembly recalled that the establishment, maintenance and strengthening of international peace and security are founded upon freedom, equality, self-determination, independence and respect for the sovereignty of States;

—the 1981 *Declaration on the Prevention of Nuclear Catastrophe*, which reaffirms that the foremost task of the United Nations is to save present and succeeding generations from the scourge of war, and declares that any actions pushing the world toward a nuclear catastrophe are incompatible with human moral standards and the lofty ideals of the Charter;

—the 1982 *Manila Declaration on the Peaceful Settlement of International Disputes*, which reaffirms the principle of the Charter that all States shall settle their international disputes by peaceful means, and recognizes the importance of enhancing the effectiveness of the United Nations in the peaceful settlement of disputes and in the maintenance of international peace and security.

Other actions of the General Assembly for the promotion of peace include: approval of the establishment, in 1980, of the University for Peace, in San José, Costa Rica; the designation of the opening day of the Assembly's regular session—the third Tuesday in September each year—as International Day of Peace; and the designation of 1986 as International Year of Peace, to commence on 24 October 1985, United Nations Day.

Peace-making and peace-keeping

Throughout its history, the United Nations has often been called upon to prevent a dangerous situation from escalating into war, to persuade opposing parties to use the conference table rather than resort to arms, and to help restore peace or at least halt the fighting when conflicts occur. Despite frustrations and setbacks, the Organization has steadily developed its capacity as a peace-making and peace-keeping organization.

The methods and machinery for preventing or terminating conflicts have taken many forms. In some disputes, for example, the United Nations has acted through peace-keeping forces, observer or fact-finding missions (dispatched by the Security Council or General Assembly), plebiscite supervision, good offices missions, conciliation panels, mediators and special representatives. In other matters, it has provided the forum for debate and negotiation and a channel for quiet diplomacy.

Under Article 25 of the Charter, Member States "agree to accept and carry out the decisions of the Security Council" in accordance with the Charter. Recommendations of other United Nations bodies do not have the mandatory force of Security Council decisions but may influence situations through their weight as the expression of world opinion.

The Security Council has exercised its power to recommend measures of a military nature (as in Korea, *see page 34)*. Often the Secretary-General has made his good offices available to the parties in disputes, either directly or through a special representative, as in the cases of Afghanistan and Kampuchea *(see below)*.

Conflict-control measures known as peace-keeping operations have been authorized by the Security Council (or, exceptionally, by the General Assembly), normally with the consent of the parties, in order to enable the United Nations to assist in bringing about the cessation of hostilities, preventing their recurrence and normalizing conditions. There have been two types of such operations: United Nations military observer missions and United Nations peace-keeping forces.

Military observer missions—as in Kashmir *(see page 30)*—are composed of unarmed officers made available to the United Nations, on the Secretary-General's request, by Member States that are considered impartial by the parties. An observer mission's function is to observe and report to the Secretary-General (who in turn informs the

Security Council) on the maintenance of a cease-fire, to investigate violations and to do what it can to improve the situation.

Peace-keeping forces are composed of contingents of armed troops made available by Member States. These forces typically assist in preventing the recurrence of fighting, restoring and maintaining law and order and promoting a return to normal conditions. To this end, peace-keeping forces are authorized as necessary to use negotiation, persuasion, observation and fact-finding. They run patrols or interpose physically between the opposing parties. Normally, they may use force only in self-defence as a last resort. They must at all times maintain complete impartiality and avoid any action that might affect the claims or positions of the parties. United Nations peace-keeping forces have played a significant role in the Middle East *(see page 19)*, Cyprus *(page 28)* and the Congo (now Zaire) *(page 33)*.

Afghanistan

On 3 January 1980, fifty-two Member States requested an urgent meeting of the Security Council to consider "the situation in Afghanistan and its implications for international peace and security". They stated that Soviet military intervention in Afghanistan, which had taken place late in 1979, had destabilized the area and threatened international peace and security.

Afghanistan, the Soviet Union and other States objected to the Council's consideration of the question on the grounds that it amounted to intervention by the United Nations in Afghanistan's affairs. Afghanistan said that it had requested Soviet aid, including military aid, in conformity with a 1978 treaty of friendship, good-neighbourliness and co-operation between the two countries. The Soviet Union said that, over the preceding two years, Afghanistan had repeatedly appealed for Soviet support in order to repel armed intervention from outside and that the Soviet Union's decision to send a limited military contingent to Afghanistan had been taken in response to that request and was based on provisions of mutual treaty obligations.

On 7 January, the Council considered a draft resolution which would have deplored the armed intervention in Afghanistan as a violation of a fundamental principle of the United Nations Charter—namely, preservation of the sovereignty, territorial integrity and political independence of every State—and would have called for the immediate and unconditional withdrawal of all foreign troops from Afghanistan. The draft resolution was not adopted because of the negative vote of one of the Council's permanent members (the Soviet Union).

On 9 January, the Council, taking into account that the lack of unanimity of its permanent members had prevented it from exercising its primary responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and security, decided to call an emergency special session of the General Assembly to examine the question of Afghanistan.

The General Assembly, meeting in emergency special session that same month, reaffirmed that respect for the sovereignty, territorial integrity and political independence of every State is a fundamental principle of the Charter. It strongly deplored "the recent armed intervention in Afghanistan, which is inconsistent with that principle", and called for the immediate, unconditional and total withdrawal of the foreign troops from Afghanistan "in order to enable its people to determine their own form of government and to choose their economic, political and social systems free from outside intervention, subversion, coercion or constraint of any kind whatsoever".

The Assembly appealed to all States and national and international organizations to extend humanitarian relief assistance to alleviate the hardships of the Afghan refugees, in co-ordination with UNHCR, and it requested the Secretary-General to keep Member States and the Security Council informed on the progress towards the implementation of the Assembly's resolution.

The situation in Afghanistan was again discussed by the General Assembly at its regular session later in 1980. The Assembly expressed appreciation to the Secretary-General for his efforts in the search for a solution to the problem and said it hoped he would continue to extend assistance, including the appointment of a special representative, with a view to promoting a political solution.

Over the next two years, the Secretary-General and his representative continued their efforts aimed at facilitating negotiations so as to achieve a fair political solution to the question of Afghanistan. In his 1982 report to the General Assembly and the Security Council on the question, the Secretary-General said that his personal representative had held detailed exchanges of views with the representatives of Afghanistan, Pakistan and Iran on the four main issues—the withdrawal of foreign troops, non-interference in the internal affairs of States, international guarantees of non-interference and the voluntary return of refugees to their homes—and that, as those issues were interrelated, a comprehensive settlement was being sought.

The Secretary-General also reported that he had had an exchange of views during his visit to the Soviet Union in September 1982 and that the Soviet Government had affirmed its support for his continued efforts aimed at facilitating negotiations for a political settlement. His own overriding concern, the Secretary-General said, would continue to be that "the Afghan people be given the opportunity to build their future in peace".

At its 1982 session, the Assembly expressed support for the Secretary-General's efforts and called on all the parties concerned to work for the urgent achievement of a political solution and the creation of conditions that would enable Afghan refugees to return to their homes.

Kampuchea

Following the outbreak of hostilities in December 1978 between Democratic Kampuchea and Viet Nam, the situation in Kampuchea and related developments in South-East Asia were considered by the Security Council in early 1979. In January, the Council met at the request of Democratic Kampuchea which charged Viet Nam with aggression. The Council considered a draft resolution that would have demanded strict adherence to the principle of non-interference in the internal affairs of States and would have called on all foreign forces to observe a cease-fire, end hostilities and withdraw from Democratic Kampuchea. The draft resolution, and a similar one considered again by the Council in March, was not adopted because of the negative vote of one of its permanent members (the Soviet Union).

The question was considered by the General Assembly at its regular session later in 1979 at the request of five Asian States—Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore and Thailand. The Assembly adopted a resolution in which it urged all parties to the conflict to cease all hostilities forthwith, called for the withdrawal of all foreign forces from Kampuchea, appealed to all States to refrain from any interference in the internal affairs of Kampuchea and resolved that the people of Kampuchea should be enabled to choose democratically their own government, without outside interference, subversion or coercion. The Assembly also appealed to all States and national and international organizations to render humanitarian relief to the civilian population of Kampuchea.

The International Conference on Kampuchea, convened by a 1980 decision of the General Assembly and held in New York in July 1981, adopted a Declaration on Kampuchea which reaffirmed the basic principles for a political settlement and set out the elements of such a settlement. At its regular session later in 1981, the General Assembly adopted the Declaration and requested the Secretary-General to exercise his good offices in order to contribute to a comprehensive political settlement. The Assembly appealed for the continuation of relief assistance to Kampucheans still in need, especially those along the Thai-Kampuchean border and in the holding centres in Thailand, and requested the Secretary-General to continue his efforts in co-ordinating humanitarian relief assistance and in monitoring its distribution.

Reporting to the Assembly in October 1982, the Secretary-General stated that he had undertaken consultations, in the exercise of his good offices, with the States most directly concerned, and that his special representative had also held talks with Governments in the region, but that wide differences continued to exist between the positions of the parties concerned, both on the nature of the problem and on the modalities for a peaceful solution. He stated that he was determined to continue to exercise his good offices and to assist all parties concerned in the search for a peaceful solution.

With regard to the Programme of Humanitarian Assistance to the People of Kampuchea, in operation since 1980 and funded largely by voluntary contributions from Member States, the Secretary-General said that the food situation had improved somewhat but that agricultural conditions in the country remained vulnerable and the Kampuchean people who had sought refuge along the Thai-Kampuchean border and in Thailand remained dependent on relief assistance provided by the international community.

Middle East

From its early days, the United Nations has been concerned with the problem of the Middle East. In response to hostilities which have broken out at various times in the course of more than three decades, it has established peace-keeping machinery and formulated principles for a peaceful settlement. It continues its efforts to find a just and lasting solution of the underlying political problems.

1947-1949. The Middle East problem had its origins in the issue of the future of Palestine, which was brought before the United Nations early in 1947. At the time, Palestine was a territory administered by the United Kingdom under a Mandate from the League of Nations. It had a population of about two million, two thirds Arabs and one third Jews.

In November 1947, the General Assembly, after considering the report of the United Nations Special Committee on Palestine, endorsed a plan for the partition of the territory, providing for the creation of an Arab and a Jewish State, with Jerusalem to be placed under international status. The plan was not accepted by the Palestinian Arabs or by the Arab States.

On 14 May 1948, the Assembly appointed a United Nations Mediator, Count Folke Bernadotte, who was to promote a peaceful adjustment of the situation in Palestine. On the same day, the United Kingdom relinquished its mandate over Palestine and the State of Israel was proclaimed. On the following day, the Palestinian Arabs, assisted by Arab States, opened hostilities against the new State. The hostilities were halted through a truce called for by the Security Council and supervised by the United Nations Mediator, with the assistance of a group of military observers which came to be known as the UNITED NATIONS TRUCE SUPERVISION ORGANIZATION IN PALESTINE (UNTSO).

When Count Bernadotte was assassinated on 17 September 1948, Ralph Bunche was appointed Acting Mediator. Under his auspices, armistice agreements were signed in 1949 by Israel and four Arab countries—Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon and Syria. UNTSO was to assist the parties to the agreements, through mixed armistice commissions, in supervising the application and observance of the terms of the agreements.

1956. Following Egypt's nationalization of the Suez Canal Company in July 1956, Israel and, subsequently, France and the United Kingdom intervened militarily against Egypt. The General Assembly, meeting in emergency special session, called for a cease-fire and withdrawal of those forces from Egyptian territory, and authorized the establishment of the UNITED NATIONS EMERGENCY FORCE (UNEF), the first United Nations peace-keeping force.

UNEF supervised the troop withdrawals and was then deployed entirely on Egyptian territory, with Egypt's consent, to act as a buffer between Egyptian and Israeli forces. It patrolled the Egypt-Israel armistice demarcation line and the international frontier to the south of the Gaza Strip and brought relative quiet to the area. The Canal, blocked as a result of the hostilities, was cleared by the United Nations.

UNEF was withdrawn in May 1967, at the request of Egypt, which informed the Secretary-General that it would no longer consent to the stationing of UNEF on Egyptian territory and in Gaza.

1967. Fighting again broke out on 5 June 1967 between Israel and Egypt, Jordan and Syria. The Security Council called for an immediate cease-fire. When hostilities ended six days later, Israel had occupied Sinai and the Gaza Strip, the West Bank of the Jordan, including East Jerusalem, and part of the Golan Heights. The Secretary-General, acting on decisions of the Council, stationed UNTSO observers in the Golan and Suez Canal sectors to supervise the cease-fire. Meeting in emergency special session, the General Assembly, on 4 July, called on Israel not to take any steps to alter the status of Jerusalem.

On 22 November 1967, the Security Council unanimously adopted *resolution 242 (1967)*, which defined the principles for a just and lasting peace in the Middle East. Key principles to be applied were:

—the withdrawal of Israeli armed forces from occupied territories and the termination of all claims or states of belligerency; and

—respect for and acknowledgement of the sovereignty, territorial integrity and political independence of every State in the area and their right to live in peace within secure and recognized boundaries, free from threats or acts of force.

The resolution also affirmed the need to guarantee free navigation through international waterways in the area, settle the refugee problem justly and guarantee the territorial inviolability and political independence of the States involved, through measures including the establishment of demilitarized zones.

The Council requested the Secretary-General to designate a special representative for the Middle East to help achieve a peaceful and accepted settlement within the framework of resolution 242. Gunnar Jarring, of Sweden, who was appointed to that post, initiated talks with Egypt, Israel and Jordan in December 1967 (Syria did not accept resolution 242). The talks were continued intermittently until 1973, but despite Mr. Jarring's efforts no significant progress could be achieved because of the differences of the parties on the basic issues.

1972-1979. Tension along the Israel-Lebanon border increased in 1972. Israel, in reprisal for raids carried out on its territory by Palestinian commandos, attacked Palestinian camps in Lebanon. In April 1972, at the request of Lebanon and in accordance with a Security Council decision, a cease-fire observation operation was set up by UNTSO in the Israel-Lebanon sector.

Large-scale fighting broke out again on 6 October 1973, when Egyptian forces in the Suez Canal sector and Syrian forces on the Golan Heights attacked Israeli positions. The Security Council, in resolution 338 (1973) of 22 October, called on the parties to cease fire and to start immediately thereafter the full implementation of resolution 242 (1967). It also decided that, concurrently with the cease-fire, negotiations should start between the parties concerned to establish a just and durable peace in the Middle East. As fighting continued, the Council demanded an immediate and complete cease-fire and the return of the parties to the positions they had occupied on 22 October, and it decided to set up immediately under its authority a new UNITED NATIONS EMERGENCY FORCE. The Force, established with a complement of up to 7,000 men for an initial period of six months, was stationed in the Egypt-Israel sector.

On 21 December 1973, a Peace Conference on the Middle East was convened in Geneva under United Nations auspices and the co-chairmanship of the Soviet Union and the United States, with Egypt, Israel and Jordan attending. Before adjourning the next day, the Conference decided to continue its work through a Military Working Group which would discuss the question of disengagement of forces.

Those discussions led to an agreement between Egypt and Israel on the disengagement of their forces. Signed on 18 January 1974, at a meeting of the Military Working Group chaired by the UNEF Commander, the agreement included provisions for a partial Israeli withdrawal from occupied territory in the Sinai, the establishment of a buffer zone controlled by UNEF and areas of limited forces and armaments on both sides of the zone. The disengagement was completed on 4 March 1974 with UNEF assistance.

Israel and Egypt signed a second disengagement agreement in September 1975, providing for further Israeli withdrawals. These were completed in February 1976, and a larger new buffer zone was set up under UNEF control.

UNEF's mandate was renewed periodically by the Security Council until July 1979 when it was not extended and therefore lapsed. UNTSO observers remained stationed in Egypt in accordance with the Council's decisions.

An agreement on disengagement of Israeli and Syrian forces was signed by both parties at a meeting of the Military Working Group on 31 May 1974. The agreement also provided for an area of separation and for zones of limited forces and armaments on both sides of the area, and called for the establishment of a United Nations observer force to assist in its implementation. The Security Council therefore decided to set up immediately under its authority the UNITED NATIONS DISENGAGEMENT OBSERVER FORCE (UNDOF), with an authorized strength of 1,250 men, for an initial six-month period. The disengagement process was completed in June 1974.

The Council has repeatedly extended the mandate of UNDOF, which, in November 1982, had a strength of 1,285, comprising contingents from Austria, Canada, Finland and Poland, with a complement of UNTSO observers. UNDOF has continued to supervise the observance of the cease-fire between Israel and Syria and the area of separation to ensure, in accordance with its mandate, that there are no military forces within it.

Meanwhile, the General Assembly had increasingly turned its attention to other aspects of the Middle East question. In 1968, it had decided to establish a Special Committee to Investigate Israeli Practices Affecting the Human Rights of the Population of the Occupied Territories, which reports annually to the Assembly.

In 1974, it reaffirmed "the inalienable rights of the Palestinian people in Palestine" to unhindered self-determination, national independence and sovereignty, and recognized the Palestinian people as a principal party in the establishment of a just and durable peace in the Middle East. It also invited the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) to participate in the work of the Assembly as an observer.

The following year, the Assembly established the Committee on the Exercise of the Inalienable Rights of the Palestinian People and asked it to recommend a programme for the implementation of those rights. The Committee recommended that a timetable be established by the Security Council for the complete withdrawal of Israeli forces from the areas occupied in 1967. The evacuated areas, with all properties and services intact, would be taken over by the United Nations which, with the co-operation of the League of Arab States, would subsequently hand them over to the PLO as the representative of the Palestinian people. The Assembly has endorsed the Committee's recommendations at successive sessions since 1976, but the Security Council has not acted on them.

Another United Nations peace-keeping force was set up in March 1978 after Israeli forces invaded southern Lebanon in reaction to a Palestinian commando raid into Israel. The Security Council called on Israel to cease immediately its military action against Lebanon's territorial integrity, and it established the UNITED NATIONS INTERIM FORCE IN LEBANON (UNIFIL) to confirm the withdrawal of Israeli forces, restore international peace and security and help the Lebanese Government re-establish its effective authority in the area. The withdrawal of the Israeli forces was confirmed by UNIFIL on 13 June 1978.

The Council has continued to extend UNIFIL's mandate from its original six-month period. The Force had a strength, in August 1982, of about 7,000 men from 11 countries: Fiji, France, Ghana, Ireland, Italy, Nepal, Netherlands, Nigeria, Norway, Senegal and Sweden.

A new element was introduced in the Middle East situation in November 1977 when President Anwar Sadat of Egypt visited Jerusalem. Subsequently, direct negotiations between Egypt and Israel under United States auspices led to the conclusion, in September 1978, of two agreements, known as the Camp David accords, one on a framework for peace in the Middle East and the other on a framework for the conclusion of a peace treaty between Egypt and Israel, which was signed on 26 March 1979.

The Council of the League of Arab States, meeting in Baghdad in November 1978, called on all countries to refrain from supporting the treaty. The Committee on the Exercise of the Inalienable Rights of the Palestinian People expressed the view that the Camp David accords did not take into account the inalienable rights of the Palestinian people and were negotiated without the participation of the PLO. The General Assembly condemned "all partial agreements and separate treaties" which violated the rights of the Palestinian people, and declared that the Camp David accords and other agreements had no validity in so far as they purported to determine the future of the Palestinian people and of the Palestinian territories occupied by Israel since 1967.

Under the peace treaty, Israeli forces withdrew, in three stages, from the entire occupied Sinai, over which Egyptian authorities then took control. The forces were completely withdrawn by 1982.

1982. Until May 1982, the area was generally quiet and the activities of the three United Nations peace-keeping operations—the United Nations Truce Supervision Operation (UNTSO), the United Nations Disengagement Observer Force (UNDOF) and the United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon (UNIFIL)—remained essentially unchanged. In the Israel-Lebanon sector, the cease-fire which had come into effect on 24 July 1981 generally held, although there were serious breaches on 21 April and 9 May 1982, and tension remained at a high level. Intensive efforts were made both in the field and at United Nations Headquarters to maintain the cease-fire and to restore it after hostile acts occurred.

In early June, the situation in the Israel-Lebanon sector changed radically, and large-scale hostilities took place in Lebanon. On 4 June, Israeli aircraft attacked targets in the Beirut area. This attack was followed by intense exchanges of fire in southern Lebanon and across the Lebanese-Israeli border, involving the armed elements (mainly the Palestine Liberation Organization and the Lebanese National Movement) on the one hand, and the Israel Defence Forces and the *de facto* forces (Christian and associated militias) on the other.

On 5 June, the Security Council, in a unanimous resolution, called on all the parties to the conflict to cease immediately and simultaneously all military activities within Lebanon and across the Lebanese-Israeli border. That same day, the PLO reaffirmed its commitment to stop all military operations across the Lebanese border. Israel informed the Secretary-General that the Council's resolution would be brought before the Israeli Cabinet.

On 6 June, Israeli forces moved into Lebanese territory in strength. UNIFIL units attempted to prevent the entry and advance of the Israeli forces but, given the overwhelming strength of those forces, UNIFIL positions in the line of the invasion were overrun or bypassed.

By 7 June, Israeli forces, comprising more than two mechanized divisions, with air and naval support, had reached positions north of the UNIFIL area. In the light of the radically altered situation in which UNIFIL had now to function, the Secretary-General instructed the Force to continue to man its positions and, as an interim task, to provide protection and humanitarian assistance to the population of the area.

On 11 June, Israel and Syria separately announced that each would cease fire, subject to certain conditions being met. Hostilities in Lebanon continued, however.

The Security Council, which on 7 June had demanded that Israel withdraw all its military forces forthwith and unconditionally to the internationally recognized boundaries of Lebanon and that all parties observe strictly the terms of its 5 June resolution, on 19 June called upon all the parties to the conflict to respect the rights of the civilian populations, to refrain from all acts of violence against those populations and to take all appropriate measures to alleviate the suffering caused by the conflict, in particular by facilitating the dispatch and distribution of aid provided by United Nations agencies and non-governmental organizations, especially the International Committee of the Red Cross.

Meeting again on 4 July, the Council adopted a resolution in which, alarmed by the continued suffering of the Lebanese and Palestinian civilian populations in south Lebanon and West Beirut, it called for respect for the rights of the civilian populations without any discrimination and repudiated all acts of violence against those populations. It also called for the restoration of the normal supply of vital facilities such as water, electricity, food and medical provisions, particularly in Beirut.

On 29 July, the Council demanded that Israel lift immediately the blockade of Beirut in order to permit the dispatch of supplies to meet the urgent needs of the civilian population and allow the distribution of aid.

Meeting again on 1 August, the Security Council again demanded an immediate cease-fire and a cessation of all military activities within Lebanon and across the Lebanese-Israeli border. Following the adoption of the resolution, Lebanon requested the stationing of United Nations observers in the Beirut area to ensure that the cease-fire was fully observed by all concerned. The same day, the Secretary-General instructed the Chief of Staff of UNTSO to make the necessary arrangements, in consultation with the parties concerned, for the immediate deployment of United Nations observers in and around Beirut. The Secretary-General reported that, while assurances of co-operation had been received from the Lebanese Government and the PLO, the Israeli authorities had stated that the matter of observers had to be brought before the Israeli Cabinet. The United Nations observers assigned to the Israel-Lebanon Mixed Armistice Commission were constituted as the Observer Group Beirut (OGB), but the deployment of the United Nations observers in the Beirut area could not be put into full effect until the reply from the Israeli Government was received.

On 4 August, the Security Council expressed deep shock and alarm at the consequences of the Israeli invasion of Beirut, confirmed its demand for an immediate cease-fire and withdrawal of Israeli forces from Lebanon, and censured Israel for its failure to comply with its resolutions.

On 12 August, the Security Council, expressing most serious concern about continued military activities in Lebanon, demanded that Israel and all parties to the conflict observe strictly the terms of the Council's resolutions relevant to the immediate cessation of all military activities within Lebanon and, particularly, in and around Beirut; demanded the immediate lifting of all restrictions on the city of Beirut in order to permit the free entry of supplies to meet the urgent needs of the civilian population in Beirut; and demanded that Israel co-operate fully in the effort to secure the effective deployment of the United Nations observers, as requested by Lebanon.

Lebanon informed the Secretary-General on 20 August that it had requested the deployment of a multinational force in Beirut to assist the Lebanese armed forces as they carried out the orderly and safe departure from Lebanon of Palestinian armed personnel in the Beirut area, in a manner which would further the restoration of the sovereignty and authority of the Government of Lebanon over the Beirut area. France, Italy and the United States had entered into an agreement with Lebanon for the deployment of their troops to participate in the multinational force.

The Secretary-General, reporting to the Security Council on 2 September on the situation in the Beirut area, said that the cease-fire which had gone into effect on 12 August had generally held, that the first contingent of the multinational force had arrived in Beirut on 21 August and the remainder on 25 and 26 August, and that the evacuation of the Palestinian armed elements and the Arab Deterrent Force from the Beirut area began on 21 August and was completed on 1 September.

Reporting again to the Security Council on 15 September, the Secretary-General said that, between 2 and 8 September, elements of the Lebanese Armed Forces and Internal Security Force had moved to new positions in West and South Beirut and the situation in the Beirut area had remained generally calm until 13 September. On 14 September, however, tension had greatly increased when President-elect Bashir Gemayel and several others were killed in a bomb explosion. The following day, units of the Israel Defence Forces had moved forward from their previous positions in West Beirut and had taken new positions in the area.

On 16 September, the Security Council adopted a resolution in which it condemned the Israeli incursions into Beirut in violation of the cease-fire agreements and of the Council's resolutions; demanded an immediate return to the positions occupied by Israel before 15

September; and called again for the strict respect for Lebanon's sovereignty, territorial integrity, unity and political independence under the sole and exclusive authority of the Lebanese Government through the Lebanese Army throughout Lebanon.

On 18 September, United Nations observers of Observer Group Beirut reported that, the previous day, fighting in the Sabra Camp in the southern suburbs of Beirut had been in progress; that the presence of Kataeb (Phalange) units had been observed at Bir Hassan, in the hospital and the airport areas in the vicinity of the Sabra Camp; and that West Beirut, with the exception of Sabra Camp, had been under control by the Israel Defence Forces on 17 September. On the morning of 18 September, all of West Beirut had been under control by Israel Defence Forces and the presence of Kataeb units had again been observed in the same general areas as on the previous day. Two teams of OGB observers had reached the Sabra Camp that morning and had found many clusters of bodies of men, women and children in civilian clothes who appared to have been massacred in groups of 10 or 20. Observer Group Beirut had received information from the Lebanese Army that the units seen in the Sabra area and its vicinity were in fact Kataeb units mixed with Lebanese *de facto* forces coming from southern Lebanon.

Upon receiving the first reports of the killings, the Secretary-General issued, on the morning of 18 September, a statement expressing shock and horror and calling urgently for an end to the violence. The Security Council met on the evening of 18 September and in the early morning of 19 September adopted a resolution condemning the criminal massacre of Palestinian civilians in Beirut and again calling for respect for the rights of the civilian population. It authorized the Secretary-General to increase the number of United Nations observers in and around Beirut from 10 to 50 and, in consultation with the Government of Lebanon, to ensure the rapid deployment of those observers in order that they might contribute to the effort to ensure full protection for the civilian population.

On 20 September, the Chief of Staff of UNTSO was informed of the decision of the Israeli Cabinet to concur with the dispatch of the observers and, on the same day, a first group of 25 United Nations military observers was dispatched to Beirut.

The General Assembly, meeting in a resumed emergency special session on 24 September, condemned the criminal massacre of Palestinian and other civilians in Beirut on 17 September and urged the Security Council to investigate, through the means available to it, the circumstances and extent of the massacre and make public its findings as soon as possible.

At its regular session later in 1982, the General Assembly adopted a series of resolutions in which, among other things, it:

—condemned Israel's continued occupation of the Palestinian and other Arab territories, including Jerusalem, and demanded the immediate, unconditional and total withdrawal of Israel from all those territories occupied since June 1967, including Jerusalem;

—condemned Israel's aggression and practices against the Palestinian people in the occupied territories and outside those territories, particularly in Lebanon; the imposition by Israel of its jurisdiction on the Golan Heights and its annexationist policies and practices; and declared that all those measures were null and void and constituted a violation of the rules and principles of international law relevant to belligerent occupation, in particular the 1949 Geneva Convention relative to the Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War;

—reaffirmed its conviction that the question of Palestine is the core of the conflict in the Middle East and that no comprehensive, just and lasting peace in the region will be achieved without the full exercise by the Palestinian people of their inalienable national rights; and

—urgently called for the achievement of a comprehensive, just and lasting peace based on the resolutions of the United Nations, concluded under its auspices, in which all the parties concerned, including the PLO, participated on an equal footing.

UNITED NATIONS RELIEF AND WORKS AGENCY FOR PALESTINE REFUGEES IN THE NEAR EAST (UNRWA). The United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East was established by the General Assembly in 1949 to help the refugees who lost their homes and livelihood as a result of the Arab-Israeli conflict in Palestine in 1948.

UNRWA provides education and training, health and relief services to Arab refugees from Palestine in Jordan, Lebanon, the Syrian Arab Republic and the occupied territories of the West Bank and Gaza Strip. Its mandate has been renewed periodically by the General Assembly, most recently until 30 June 1984.

In mid-1982, 1,925,726 refugees were registered with UNRWA, an increase of 2.17 per cent over the previous year. Medical care is provided at UNRWA's 100 health units throughout the area, with preventive medicine, mother and child care, and health education among the service's major preoccupations. Specialist clinics for chronic and degenerative diseases are maintained, in addition to 24 dental clinics.

At the beginning of the 1981/1982 school year, there were 338,386 elementary and junior secondary school pupils in 645 UNRWA schools. In addition, vocational and technical training was being provided to 3,868 young people, and 1,323 were receiving teacher training.

Relief services concentrate on providing food and other welfare assistance to destitute refugees. This is a new programme, replacing the general distribution of basic food rations which was discontinued in 1982. Some 43,000 refugees benefited in 1981-1982, and the number could rise to 70,000 when the programme becomes fully operational.

As a result of the Israeli invasion of Lebanon in early June 1982, tens of thousands of Palestine refugees were left homeless once more and reduced to a state of misery. An emergency operation brought relief services to all Palestine refugees, whether registered with the Agency or not.

UNRWA depends on voluntary contributions from Governments both for its normal operations and for emergency relief. The Commissioner-General of UNRWA has appealed for $235.9 million to finance the Agency's regular programme in 1983 and for an additional $21.9 million for the emergency relief operation in Lebanon.

Cyprus

Cyprus became independent in 1960 with a constitution that was intended to balance the interests of the island's Greek Cypriot and Turkish Cypriot communities. The Treaty of August 1960, entered into by Greece, Turkey and the United Kingdom, guaranteed the basic provisions of the Constitution and the territorial integrity and sovereignty of Cyprus.

Following the outbreak of fighting in the island in December 1963, the Security Council met to consider a complaint by Cyprus charging intervention in its internal affairs and aggression by Turkey. Cyprus declared that the root of the problem lay in the divisive provisions of the Constitution, which had split the people into hostile camps. Turkey maintained that Greek Cypriot leaders had tried for more than two years to nullify the rights of the Turkish Cypriot community. It denied all charges of aggression.

On 4 March 1964, the Security Council unanimously recommended the establishment of the UNITED NATIONS PEACE-KEEPING FORCE IN CYPRUS (UNFICYP) with a mandate to prevent the recurrence of fighting, help maintain law and order, and promote a return to normal conditions. Since 1964, the Council has periodically extended UNFICYP's mandate, usually for periods of six months at a time.

A *coup d'état* in Cyprus on 15 July 1974 by Greek Cypriot and Greek elements opposed to President Makarios was followed by military intervention by Turkey, whose troops subsequently established Turkish Cypriot control over the northern part of Cyprus.

Following the outbreak of hostilities, the Security Council unanimously called for a cease-fire and laid the basis for negotiations designed to reach a settlement of the Cyprus problem. But the negotiations between Greece, Turkey and the United Kingdom, which were held in Geneva until mid-August 1974, broke down, and a further Turkish military operation extended the area under Turkish Cypriot control in the north. A cease-fire came into effect on 16 August 1974.

Four days later, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees was appointed by the Secretary-General as co-ordinator of United Nations humanitarian assistance in Cyprus. More than 200,000 people required assistance as a result of the dislocation caused by the hostilities. The High Commissioner continues to assist displaced and needy persons, and UNFICYP provides support in carrying out these humanitarian efforts.

Concurrently with the functioning of UNFICYP, the United Nations has been active in promoting a peaceful solution and an agreed settlement of the Cyprus problem. This task, first entrusted to a mediator, has since 1968 been carried out through the good offices of the Secretary-General. Within that framework, intercommunal talks between the representatives of the Greek Cypriot and Turkish Cypriot communities, as well as high-level meetings, have been held in an effort to reach a just and lasting solution to the problem.

In November 1974, the General Assembly unanimously called on all States to respect the sovereignty, territorial integrity, independence and non-alignment of Cyprus. It urged the speedy withdrawal of all foreign armed forces from Cyprus, a halt to foreign interference, and the safe return of all refugees to their homes. The Assembly said that constitutional issues were up to the Greek Cypriot and Turkish Cypriot communities, and it urged the continuation of the contacts which were taking place between representatives of the two communities with the help of the Secretary-General.

These contacts were broken off after an announcement on 13 February 1975 declaring that a part of Cyprus would become a "federated Turkish State". On 12 March 1975, the Security Council expressed regret regarding this unilateral move and called for new efforts to assist the resumption of negotiations. It asked the Secretary-General to undertake a new mission of good offices and to convene the representatives of the two communities under his auspices. The talks called for by the Security Council began on 28 April 1975 in Vienna, and three further rounds were held that year.

During the third round, it was agreed that the Turkish Cypriots in the south of the island would be allowed to proceed north with the assistance of UNFICYP and that a number of Greek Cypriots would be transferred to the north in order to reunite their families. Greek Cypriots in the north would be free to go south or to stay; those who stayed would be helped to lead a normal life, including freedom of movement. UNFICYP would have free and normal access to Greek Cypriot villages in the north.

In February 1977, Archbishop Makarios and Rauf Denktash, leader of the Turkish Cypriot community, met in Nicosia under the auspices of the Secretary-General and agreed on new guidelines for the representatives of their communities in the intercommunal talks. The guidelines stated that the communities were seeking an independent, non-aligned, bi-communal Federal Republic with a central federal government having such powers and functions as would safeguard the unity of the country. They further provided that territorial aspects should be discussed in the light of economic viability and land ownership, and that questions of principle such as freedom of movement and of settlement were open for discussion, taking into consideration certain practical difficulties which might arise for the Turkish Cypriot community.

On that basis, a new round of intercommunal talks was held in Vienna from 31 March to 7 April 1977. The talks were resumed in Nicosia in May, but they were not continued after 3 June.

In December 1978, the Secretary-General undertook a new initiative, in consultation with all concerned, towards devising an agreed basis for the resumption of the negotiating process. These efforts led to a high-level meeting in Nicosia in May 1979, under the auspices of the Secretary-General, which resulted in agreement on the resumption of the intercommunal talks and agreement setting forth among its ten points the following: the talks would be based on the Makarios/Denktash guidelines of February 1977 and the United Nations resolutions on the Cyprus question; the talks would deal with all territorial and constitutional aspects; priority would be given to reaching agreement on the resettlement of Varosha (the Greek Cypriot quarter of Famagusta, whose inhabitants had fled during the 1974 hostilities); and special importance would be given to initial practical measures by both sides to promote goodwill, mutual confidence and the return to normal conditions.

The intercommunal talks resumed in Nicosia on 15 June 1979 but soon encountered difficulties, mainly over the Turkish Cypriot position concerning the security of that community. In view of the continuing differences, the talks were recessed on 22 June.

Following extended consultations by the Secretary-General and his representatives with the parties, the intercommunal talks were resumed on 9 August 1980, and beginning in September were held weekly in Nicosia under the auspices of the Secretary-General's Special Representative. In November 1981, the Special Representative submitted to the parties an "evaluation" of the status of the negotiations. Since then, the "evaluation" has been used as a method of discussion to assist the two sides in their dialogue.

In the meantime, UNFICYP has continued to carry out its daily task of supervising the cease-fire and maintaining close surveillance over the buffer area between the cease-fire lines, as well as making efforts to discharge its functions with regard to the security and well-being of Greek Cypriots in the north.

At the end of 1982, the Force numbered about 2,350 men, from Australia, Austria, Canada, Denmark, Finland, Ireland, Sweden and the United Kingdom. Costs are met by those Governments and the Government of Cyprus, and by voluntary contributions.

South Asia subcontinent—India-Pakistan

For over three decades, the United Nations has been concerned with the dispute between India and Pakistan over Kashmir. In addition, the Organization mounted the largest humanitarian operation in its history during and after the conflict over Bangladesh in 1971.

The State of Jammu and Kashmir was an Indian princely State which became free, under the partition plan and the Indian Independence Act of 1947, to accede to India or to Pakistan, on both of which it borders. The Maharajah of the State requested accession to India, and India accepted on the understanding that the question would be settled by reference to the people.

In January 1948, India complained to the Security Council that tribesmen and others, with Pakistan's support and participation, were invading Kashmir and that extensive fighting was taking place. Pakistan denied the charges and declared that Kashmir's accession to India was illegal.

The Security Council decided to establish a United Nations Commission for India and Pakistan to investigate and mediate, first on the Jammu and Kashmir situation and, when so directed by the Council, on other situations complained of by Pakistan. The Council also recommended various measures, including the use of observers, to stop the fighting and to create proper conditions for a free and impartial plebiscite. To assist in carrying out these measures, it instructed the Commission to proceed at once to the Indian subcontinent and there place its good offices and mediation at the disposal of the Governments of India and Pakistan.

The Commission made proposals to both India and Pakistan regarding a cease-fire and troop withdrawals and also proposed to the Governments that the accession of Jammu and Kashmir be decided by a free and impartial plebiscite. Both sides accepted the proposals, with clarifications and understandings. The cease-fire came into effect on 1 January 1949, and United Nations military observers were deployed in the area to supervise it. In July 1949, a cease-fire line was established in Jammu and Kashmir under an agreement between the two countries reached in Karachi under the auspices of the United Nations Commission.

India and Pakistan also accepted the proposal for a plebiscite, but the Commission was unable to reach agreement with the parties on the terms of demilitarization of the State before a plebiscite could be held. Despite mediation by various United Nations representatives, differences between the parties remained and the problem came before the Security Council at various times during the period 1957-1964.

Hostilities again broke out between India and Pakistan in early August 1965. The Security Council called for a cease-fire, and the fighting was brought to a stop in September 1965, with the assistance of the UNITED NATIONS MILITARY OBSERVER GROUP IN INDIA AND PAKISTAN (UNMOGIP), which had been set up under the Council's 1948 resolution establishing the United Nations Commission for India and Pakistan. At the same time, the Secretary-General reported that he had decided to organize the observers who would supervise the cease-fire along the India-Pakistan border as the UNITED NATIONS INDIA-PAKISTAN OBSERVATION MISSION (UNIPOM), an operation distinct from UNMOGIP in Kashmir.

In February 1966, the Secretary-General informed the Security Council that, at a series of joint meetings of representatives of India and Pakistan, which had been convened by his representative in January, a plan and ground rules for withdrawals had been worked out. The

Secretary-General stated that on 10 January, the Prime Minister of India and the President of Pakistan had agreed, in a joint Declaration at Tashkent—where they met under the auspices of the Soviet Union—that their respective armed personnel would be withdrawn no later than 25 February to positions held before 5 August 1965. The withdrawal of troops was carried out in February 1966 under the supervision of UNMOGIP and UNIPOM military observers.

In 1971, another conflict broke out between India and Pakistan, this time in connection with civil strife in East Pakistan, which later became the independent State of Bangladesh. As millions of refugees streamed into neighbouring India, tension increased in the region. With the consent of India and Pakistan, the Secretary-General set up two large-scale humanitarian programmes, one, under the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, for the relief of East Pakistani refugees in India, and the other, under a United Nations representative, for assistance to the distressed population in East Pakistan.

In July 1971, the Secretary-General drew the attention of the Security Council to the deterioration of the situation in the region, which he described as a potential threat to peace and security. He noted that humanitarian, economic and political problems were involved, and he indicated that the United Nations should play a more forthright role to avert a further deterioration. In October 1971, the Secretary-General offered his good offices to the Governments of India and Pakistan in dealing with the situation in the area, but this was not accepted by India. In December, when full-scale hostilities broke out between the two countries, he notified the Security Council, under Article 99 of the Charter, that the situation constituted a threat to international peace and security.

After a cease-fire had put an end to the fighting on 17 December, the Security Council demanded strict observance of it until withdrawals of all armed forces to their respective territories and to positions which fully respected the cease-fire line in Kashmir supervised by UNMOGIP. The Council also called for international assistance to relieve the suffering, and it authorized the Secretary-General to appoint a Special Representative to aid in the solution of humanitarian problems.

In July 1972, the Prime Minister of India and the President of Pakistan signed, at Simla, an agreement defining a Line of Control in Kashmir which, with minor deviations, follows the same course as the cease-fire line established in the Karachi agreement of 1949. UNMOGIP observers continue to be deployed along both sides of the line, but their activities have been restricted on the Indian side of the line.

During 1972, the refugees, with the assistance of the United Nations, returned to their homeland. The United Nations relief operation helped to pave the way for rehabilitation of the war-shattered economy of Bangladesh, which became a Member of the United Nations in 1974.

Congo

The Republic of the Congo (Leopoldville) (now the Republic of Zaire), a former Belgian colony, became independent on 30 June 1960. In the days that followed, disorder broke out, and Belgium sent its troops to the Congo, stating that the aim was to protect and evacuate Europeans.

On 12 July 1960, the Congolese Government asked for United Nations military assistance to protect the national territory of the Congo against external aggression. Two days later, the Security Council called upon Belgium to withdraw its troops from the Congo and authorized the Secretary-General to provide the Congolese Government with such military assistance as might be necessary until, through the efforts of the Government with the technical assistance of the United Nations, the national security forces might be able, in the Government's opinion, to meet their tasks fully.

In less than 48 hours, contingents of the United Nations Force, provided by a number of countries including Asian and African States, began to arrive in the Congo. At the same time, United Nations civilian experts were rushed to the Congo to help ensure the continued operation of essential public services.

Over the next four years, the task of the United Nations was to help the Congolese Government restore and maintain the political independence and territorial integrity of the Congo; to help it maintain law and order throughout the country; and to put into effect a wide and long-term programme of training and technical assistance.

To meet the vast and complex task before it, the United Nations had to assemble an exceptionally large team. At its peak strength, the United Nations Force totalled more than 20,000 officers and men. The instructions of the Security Council to this Force were strengthened early in 1961 after the assassination in Katanga of former Prime Minister Patrice Lumumba. The Force was to protect the Congo from outside interference, particularly by eliminating foreign mercenaries and advisers from Katanga and preventing clashes and civil strife, by force if necessary as a last resort.

Following the reconvening of Parliament in August 1961 under United Nations auspices, the main problem was the attempted secession, led and financed by foreign elements, of the province of Katanga. On three occasions—in September and December 1961 and December 1962—the secessionist gendarmes under the command of foreign mercenaries clashed with the United Nations Force. Secretary-General Dag Hammarskjöld lost his life on 17 September 1961 in the crash of his plane on the way to Ndola where talks were to be held for the cessation of hostilities.

In February 1963, after Katanga had been reintegrated into the national territory of the Congo, a phasing out of the Force was begun, aimed at its termination by the end of that year. At the request of the Congolese Government, however, the General Assembly authorized the stay of a reduced number of troops for a further six months. The Force was completely withdrawn by 30 June 1964.

Although the military phase of the United Nations Operation in the Congo had ended, civilian aid continued in the largest single programme of assistance undertaken until that time by the world Organization and its agencies, with some 2,000 experts at work in the nation at the peak of the programme in 1963-1964.

Korea

The question of Korea was first discussed in 1947 by the General Assembly, which sought unsuccessfully to bring about a unified Korean State through nation-wide free elections. In 1948, separate governments came into being in South Korea and in North Korea.

On 25 June 1950, both the United States and the United Nations Commission on Korea, which had been established by the General Assembly in 1948, informed the United Nations that the Republic of Korea had been attacked that morning by North Korean forces. The Security Council, meeting that same day, declared the armed attack to be a breach of the peace and called for a cease-fire and withdrawal of North Korean forces to the 38th parallel.

Two days later, as fighting continued, the Security Council recommended that Members of the United Nations furnish such assistance to the Republic of Korea as might be necessary to repel the armed attack and restore international peace and security in the area. The United States announced that it had ordered its air and sea forces to give cover and support to the troops of the South Korean Government and, later, that it had also authorized the use of ground forces.

On 7 July, the Security Council voted to ask all Member States providing military forces in accordance with the earlier resolutions to make them available to a unified command under the United States. This Command was authorized to fly the United Nations flag. Sixteen nations sent troops, and five others supplied medical units. The Republic of Korea also placed all its military forces under what became the United Nations Command.

The Soviet Union, which had been absent from the Security Council for six months, considered the Council's decisions illegal, as did the People's Republic of China, and in November 1950 a Chinese volunteer force entered the fighting on the side of North Korea.

Fighting continued in Korea until 27 July 1953, when an Armistice Agreement was signed. The following year, a political conference was held, as provided in the Armistice Agreement, but failed to find a solution to the Korean question.

The United Nations Commission for the Unification and Rehabilitation of Korea, which replaced the United Nations Commission on Korea in 1950, remained in the country until 1973 when it was dissolved by the General Assembly in a consensus decision which noted with satisfaction that a joint communiqué issued by North and South

Korea on 4 July 1972 provided for the following three principles on the reunification of Korea: (a) the reunification should be achieved independently, without reliance upon outside force or its interference; (b) it should be achieved by peaceful means, and (c) great national unity should be promoted.

In 1974, the General Assembly urged North and South Korea to continue their dialogue to expedite peaceful reunification. It also expressed the hope that the Security Council would in due course give consideration to the dissolution of the United Nations Command in conjunction with appropriate arrangements to maintain the Armistice Agreement, pending negotiations and conciliation between the two Korean Governments leading to a lasting peace between them.

In 1975, the United States informed the Security Council that it was prepared to terminate the United Nations Command on 1 January 1976, provided that agreement was reached on arrangements for maintaining the Armistice Agreement.

After debating the question again at its 1975 session, the General Assembly adopted two resolutions which expressed differing approaches to the problem. The first (adopted by 59 to 51, with 29 abstentions) asked "all the parties directly concerned" to negotiate on arrangements to replace the Armistice Agreement "so that the United Nations Command may be dissolved concurrently with arrangements for maintaining the Armistice Agreement". The second resolution (adopted by 54 to 43, with 42 abstentions), calling for an end to "foreign interference" in Korea, called upon "the real parties to the Armistice Agreement" to replace it with a peace agreement "in the context of the dissolution of the 'United Nations Command' and the withdrawal of all the foreign troops stationed in South Korea under the flag of the United Nations".

Disarmament

Under the Charter, one of the main functions of the General Assembly is to consider "the general principles of co-operation in the maintenance of international peace and security, including the principles governing disarmament and the regulation of armaments" and to make recommendations to Member States or to the Security Council or both.

The very first resolution approved by the General Assembly, on 24 January 1946, sought the elimination of atomic weapons and other weapons of mass destruction. Since that time, the United Nations has made constant efforts to halt the arms race. It has been a permanent forum for disarmament discussions and negotiations, a source of recommendations of the international community to States, and an initiator of studies such as those on the effects of nuclear weapons and fall-out, on chemical and biological weapons, on reduction of military budgets, and on the economic and social consequences of the arms race.

These studies have shown, among other things, that global military expenditures now exceed $600 billion annually, that many of the major problems facing the nations of the world today are aggravated by the arms race and that economic and social development is slowed by the diversion of resources for military purposes. They also show that less than 5 per cent of the amount spent annually for arms would suffice to reach the target for official development assistance set in the International Development Strategy for the Third United Nations Development Decade (1981-1990).

The original bodies established by the Security Council to study and recommend proposals on disarmament were the Atomic Energy Commission and the Commission for Conventional Armaments. In 1952, the General Assembly replaced these with the Disarmament Commission, which created a Sub-Committee two years later consisting of Canada, France, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom and the United States to carry on negotiations. The Commission was active mainly in the 1950s.

Although no concrete progress towards disarmament was made prior to 1959, the efforts undertaken during the late 1940s and throughout the 1950s contributed to the measures later achieved. In 1959, the General Assembly adopted, as a goal for the United Nations, general and complete disarmament under effective international control. This remains the ultimate aim of United Nations disarmament efforts, based on the expectation that each specific agreement will lead to another, increasing mutual confidence at each stage.

In 1961, the General Assembly unanimously welcomed a joint statement of principles agreed on by the Soviet Union and the United States as a basis for negotiations towards complete disarmament, and it endorsed an agreement between the two countries on the setting up of a new negotiating body to be called the Eighteen-Nation Committee on Disarmament, which began functioning in 1962. The Committee was renamed the Conference of the Committee on Disarmament in 1969, and was eventually enlarged to 31 members. Since 1979, the Geneva-based body has been meeting as the Committee on Disarmament, with an enlarged (40-nation) membership to ensure better representation of different regions and viewpoints.

Concerted efforts by the United Nations and Governments have produced limited but important first steps in the form of international arms control agreements dealing particularly with the threat of nuclear weapons. Prominent among these are:

—the 1959 *Antarctic Treaty*, the first treaty to put into practice the concept of the nuclear-weapon-free zone, later applied to the sea-bed, outer space and Latin America; it prohibits in the Antarctic region any military manoeuvres, weapon tests, building of installations or the disposal of radioactive wastes produced by military activities;

—the 1963 *Treaty Banning Nuclear Weapons Tests in the Atmosphere, in Outer Space and Under Water*, called the Partial Test Ban

Treaty because it does not ban underground tests; the General Assembly has repeatedly urged conclusion of a comprehensive treaty banning all tests, whether in the atmosphere, underground or under water.

—the 1966 *Treaty on Principles Governing the Activities of States in the Exploration and Use of Outer Space, including the Moon and Other Celestial Bodies* (Outer Space Treaty) bans nuclear and other weapons of mass destruction from the earth's orbit, prohibits the military use of celestial bodies or the placing of nuclear weapons on those bodies and bars the stationing of weapons in outer space, but does not prevent nuclear weapon missiles or weapons satellites from moving through outer space, the use of space-based platforms for launching ballistic missiles or the use of satellites to control and operate nuclear weapons;

—the 1967 *Treaty for the Prohibition of Nuclear Weapons in Latin America* (Treaty of Tlatelolco) created the first nuclear-weapon-free zone in a densely populated area and is the first arms control agreement to operate under international supervision;

—the 1968 *Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons* aims at limiting the spread of nuclear weapons from nuclear to non-nuclear countries, at beginning the process of disarmament in the nuclear nations and at guaranteeing all countries access to nuclear technology for peaceful purposes;

—the 1971 *Treaty on the Prohibition of the Emplacement of Nuclear Weapons and Other Weapons of Mass Destruction on the Sea-Bed and Ocean Floor and in the Subsoil Thereof* (Sea-Bed Treaty) bans the placement of nuclear and other weapons of mass destruction, and facilities for such weapons, on or under the sea-bed, outside a 12-mile coastal zone around each country, but does not mention conventional weapons or restrict the military's use of the oceans;

—the 1972 *Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production and Stockpiling of Bacteriological (Biological) and Toxin Weapons and on Their Destruction* was the first international agreement providing for genuine disarmament—that is, the destruction of existing weapons;

—the 1977 *Convention on the Prohibition of Military or Any Other Hostile Use of Environmental Modification Techniques* is limited to techniques that would have widespread, long-lasting or severe effects in causing such phenomena as earthquakes, tidal waves and changes in weather and climate patterns; and

—the 1980 *Convention on Prohibitions or Restrictions on the Use of Certain Conventional Weapons Which May Be Deemed to be Excessively Injurious or To Have Indiscriminate Effects.*

Despite these important agreements for limitation and control of armaments, global expenditures on arms and armies have continued to mount, consuming material and human resources that might otherwise be applied to development purposes.

Recognizing the pressing need to slow and reverse the world-wide arms race, the General Assembly in 1969 proclaimed the 1970s as a

Disarmament Decade. Governments were urged to intensify their concerted efforts for effective measures relating to the cessation of the nuclear arms race, nuclear disarmament and the elimination of other weapons of mass destruction.

By 1976, the Assembly, deploring the "meagre achievements" of the Decade in terms of truly effective disarmament and arms limitation agreements, decided to hold a special session in 1978 devoted entirely to disarmament.

The First Special Session on Disarmament, held from 23 May to 1 July 1978, was the largest, most representative meeting of nations ever convened to consider the question of disarmament. The views of the public were heard for the first time, through representatives of non-governmental organizations, and petitions signed by millions of people, demanding action to halt the arms race, were delivered to United Nations Headquarters during the session.

The Final Document, adopted by consensus at the special session, was a call to action to reverse the present dangerous situation and to begin a new phase in disarmament efforts. Its Programme of Action proposed a wide range of measures to enhance the security of all nations at progressively lower levels of armaments, and stressed the central role and primary responsibility of the United Nations in the disarmament field, in accordance with the Charter.

Priorities in disarmament negotiations, as set forth in the Programme of Action, are: nuclear weapons, "the greatest danger to mankind", with their complete elimination as the ultimate goal; other weapons of mass destruction, including chemical weapons; conventional weapons, including any which may be deemed to be excessively injurious or to have indiscriminate effects; and reduction of armed forces.

The Assembly called for the urgent conclusion of a comprehensive nuclear-weapon-test ban, including underground testing; cessation of the production of nuclear weapons and their means of delivery and a halt to the production of fissionable material for weapons; and agreement on a comprehensive, phased programme for progressive and balanced reduction of stockpiles of nuclear weapons and delivery systems, leading to their complete elimination.

While stressing the urgency of preventing the proliferation of nuclear weapons, the Assembly declared that all States should be free to acquire technology and materials for peaceful uses of nuclear energy. It also called for effective arrangements to provide assurances to non-nuclear-weapon States against the threat or use of nuclear weapons.

On the question of the establishment of nuclear-weapon-free zones, the Programme of Action called for full application of the 1967 Treaty prohibiting nuclear weapons in Latin America; action by the Security Council whenever necessary to prevent frustration of the objective of a denuclearized Africa; and consideration of steps to give effect to proposals for nuclear-weapon-free zones in the Middle East and South Asia.

It also proposed the early conclusion of an agreement to prohibit the development, production and stockpiling of chemical weapons and a ban on radiological weapons.

Other measures included consultations among major arms suppliers and recipient countries on limiting all types of international transfer of conventional weapons; gradual reduction of military budgets on a mutually agreed basis; and further study of the question of verification.

To revitalize existing disarmament machinery, the General Assembly established, as a deliberative body, a new Disarmament Commission composed of all United Nations Members. It welcomed the arrangements to broaden participation in the existing negotiating body, the Committee on Disarmament, and to change the co-chairmanship by the Soviet Union and the United States to a rotating chairmanship. As reconstituted, the Committee is open to the nuclear-weapon States and 35 others, including developing countries and the Eastern European and Western groups. France became an active participant in 1979 and China in 1980. Marking a closer link between the Committee and the United Nations, its Secretary is appointed by the Secretary-General and serves as his Personal Representative.

In 1979, the Assembly declared the 1980s as the Second Disarmament Decade, and in 1982 it convened another special session on disarmament.

The Second Special Session on Disarmament was held at United Nations Headquarters in New York from 7 June to 10 July 1982. The Assembly was addressed by 18 Heads of State or Government and 44 Foreign Ministers. Altogether, more than 140 States took part in the general debate, putting forward their positions on questions of disarmament, peace and security and expressing concern over the lack of progress on those questions.

Over 3,000 representatives from 450 non-governmental organizations in 47 countries around the world also attended the session, and representatives of 53 non-governmental organizations and 22 research institutions made statements at the session. In addition, thousands of communications, petitions and appeals with many millions of signatures were received by the United Nations from organizations, groups and individuals all over the world.

Over 60 proposals and position papers by Member States were circulated, dealing with such questions as nuclear disarmament and prevention of war, the banning of chemical weapons, the verification of disarmament agreements and the relationship between disarmament and development. Five draft resolutions were put before the Assembly, containing proposals for a nuclear arms freeze, nuclear disarmament and the prevention of nuclear war and for a convention on the prohibition on the use of nuclear weapons, but none was pressed to a vote.

In the Concluding Document of the session, the General Assembly unanimously reaffirmed the Final Document of the First Special Session on Disarmament. It expressed its profound preoccupation over the danger of war, particularly nuclear war, and urged Member States to consider as soon as possible proposals designed to secure the avoidance of war, particularly nuclear war. The Assembly also stressed the need for strengthening the central role of the United Nations in the field of disarmament and enhancing the effectiveness of the Committee on Disarmament as the single multilateral negotiating body.

In other decisions at the second special session, the Assembly decided to launch a World Disarmament Campaign. The purposes of the Campaign are to inform, to educate and to generate public understanding and support for the objectives of the United Nations in the field of arms limitation and disarmament. The Campaign, to be carried out in all regions of the world, is to involve the United Nations system, Governments and non-governmental organizations. The Assembly also decided to continue the United Nations programme of fellowships on disarmament and to increase the annual number of fellowships from 20 to 25.

The observance each year of Disarmament Week, beginning on 24 October—United Nations Day—was made an integral part of the World Disarmament Campaign.

At its regular session, later in 1982, the General Assembly, after reviewing the Concluding Document of the second special session, called for a freeze on nuclear weapons and agreement on a convention on the prohibition of the use of nuclear weapons. The Assembly also adopted resolutions on the cessation of all nuclear-weapons tests and on the urgent need for a comprehensive nuclear-test-ban treaty; prohibition of the development and manufacture of new types of weapons of mass destruction and new systems of such weapons; and the economic and social consequences of the armaments race and its extremely harmful effects on world peace and security.

The Assembly also called for full implementation of the Treaty of Tlatelolco, prohibiting nuclear weapons in Latin America, and of the Declaration on the Denuclearization of Africa adopted by the Organization of African Unity in 1964, and for the establishment of nuclear-weapon-free zones in the region of the Middle East and in South Asia.

Finally, the Assembly took steps to strengthen the role of the United Nations in the field of disarmament by transforming the United Nations Centre for Disarmament into a Department for Disarmament Affairs and by making the United Nations Institute for Disarmament Research that had been established by UNITAR into an autonomous institution working in close relationship with the Department for Disarmament Affairs.

Outer space

United Nations interest in the peaceful uses of outer space was first expressed in 1957, soon after the launching of the first man-made satellite, and has grown steadily with the advance of space technology. The Organization's concern is that space be used for peaceful purposes and that the benefits from space activities be shared by all nations.

The General Assembly's Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space, set up in 1959, is the focal point of United Nations action in this field. Reflecting its interest in both the legal and other aspects of international co-operation regarding outer space, the Committee has a Legal Sub-Committee and a Scientific and Technical Sub-Committee. Working groups dealing with special problems of navigation satellites, broadcasting satellites, remote-sensing satellites and the use of nuclear power sources in outer space have also been established.

Discussions in the Legal Sub-Committee have resulted in five legal instruments which have been commended by the General Assembly to States for signature, ratification and accession:

—the 1966 *Treaty on Principles Governing the Activities of States in the Exploration and Use of Outer Space, including the Moon and Other Celestial Bodies* provides that space exploration shall be carried out for the benefit of all countries, irrespective of their degree of economic or scientific development; that outer space shall be the province of all mankind, free for exploration and use by all States on a basis of equality and in accordance with international law, and is not subject to national appropriation; and that the moon and other celestial bodies shall be used exclusively for peaceful purposes. States Parties to the Treaty undertake not to place in orbit around the earth any objects carrying nuclear weapons or any other weapons of mass destruction. The Treaty also provides for international responsibility of States Parties for all national activities in outer space, whether such activities are carried out by governmental agencies or by non-governmental entities.

—the 1967 *Agreement on the Rescue of Astronauts, the Return of Astronauts and the Return of Objects Launched into Outer Space* provides for aiding the crews of spacecraft in the event of accident or emergency landing, and establishes procedures for returning a space object or its component parts found beyond the territorial limits of the launching authority to that authority;

—the 1972 *Convention on International Liability for Damage Caused by Space Objects* provides that the launching State is liable for damage caused by its space objects on the surface of the earth or to aircraft in flight and also to space objects of another State or persons or property on board such objects;

—the 1975 *Convention on the Registration of Objects Launched into Outer Space* provides that launching States shall maintain registers of space objects and provide for furnishing information on each space object launched, as specified in the Convention, for inclusion in a central United Nations register; and

—the 1979 *Agreement Governing Activities of States on the Moon and Other Celestial Bodies* elaborates in more specific terms the principles relating to the moon and other celestial bodies set out in the 1966 Treaty and sets up the basis for the future regulation of exploration and exploitation of natural resources thereof.

Other legal work of the Committee has included elaboration of principles governing the use by States of artificial earth satellites for direct television broadcasting; the legal implications of remote sensing of the earth from space; the use of nuclear power sources in outer space; and the definition and delimitation of outer space and outer-space activities, including questions relating to the geostationary orbit.

In 1982, the General Assembly adopted Principles governing the use by States of artificial earth satellites for international direct television broadcasting, taking into consideration that such use has international political, economic, social and cultural implications. The Principles are intended to contribute to the strengthening of international co-operation in this field and further the purposes and principles of the United Nations Charter.

In the scientific and technical fields, the Committee has given priority to the implementation of the United Nations Programme on Space Applications, started in 1969, and the co-ordination of outer-space activities within the United Nations system. It has also considered and made recommendations on questions relating to remote sensing of the earth by satellites, the use of nuclear power sources in outer space, questions relating to space transportation systems and their implications for future activities in space, the physical nature and technical attributes of the geostationary orbit, and other matters.

Space research activities are being aided through two sounding rocket launching stations sponsored by the United Nations. Located at Mar del Plata, Argentina, and at Thumba in Kerala, India, the stations provide developing countries with opportunities for practical training and participation in space research for peaceful uses.

Two major conferences on outer space have been organized by the United Nations. The first United Nations Conference on the Exploration and Peaceful Uses of Outer Space, held in Vienna in 1968, examined the practical benefits to be derived from space research and exploration and the extent to which non-space Powers, especially the developing countries, might enjoy them, and also considered the opportunities available to non-space Powers for international co-operation in space activities.

The Second United Nations Conference on the Exploration and Peaceful Uses of Outer Space (UNISPACE 82), also held in Vienna, in 1982, was attended by representatives of 94 States and by representatives of international organizations. The Conference reflected the growing involvement of all nations, developed and developing, in the once-limited sphere of outer-space activities; assessed the present and future state of space science and technology; considered the applications of space technology for economic and social development; and discussed international co-operative programmes related to space and the role of the United Nations.

In its final report, adopted by consensus, UNISPACE 82 expressed the concern of all nations at any possible extension of the arms race into outer space and stressed that the prevention of an arms race and hostilities in outer space is an essential condition for the promotion and continuation of international co-operation in the exploration and use of outer space for peaceful purposes. All States were urged to adhere to the 1966 Outer Space Treaty and strictly observe its letter and spirit. UNISPACE 82 made recommendations on the use of space technology, remote sensing of the earth by satellites, the use of the geostationary orbit, and direct television broadcasting by satellites.

Law of the sea

The First United Nations Conference on the Law of the Sea, held in Geneva in 1958, resulted in the adoption of four conventions—on the high seas, on the territorial sea and the contiguous zone, on the continental shelf, and on fishing and conservation of the living resources of the high seas—that were based on drafts prepared by the International Law Commission *(see page 102)*. The Second United Nations Conference on the Law of the Sea, held two years later, made an unsuccessful effort to reach agreement on certain aspects of the territorial sea and fishing zones.

In 1967, the General Assembly decided to establish a committee to study all aspects of the peaceful uses of the sea-bed and its resources beyond the limits of national jurisdiction.

The Sea-Bed Committee began work in 1969 on a statement of legal principles to govern the uses of the sea-bed and its resources, and the following year the General Assembly unanimously adopted the Committee's Declaration of Principles, which stated that "the sea-bed and ocean floor, and the subsoil thereof, beyond the limits of national jurisdiction ... as well as the resources of the area are the common heritage of mankind", to be reserved for peaceful purposes, not subject to national appropriation and not to be explored or exploited except by the international régime to be established.

The Assembly decided to convene in 1973 a comprehensive Conference on the Law of the Sea to prepare a treaty encompassing all the complex and interrelated issues involved, including the question of defining the international area, rules for its exploitation, protection of the marine environment, access to marine resources by land-locked States, and the rights and responsibilities of coastal States.

The Third United Nations Conference on the Law of the Sea opened with a brief organizational session in 1973. At its second session, held in Caracas in 1974 and attended by representatives of 138 States, as well as specialized agencies and intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations, it endorsed the Sea-Bed Committee's recommendation that it work on a new law of the sea treaty as a "package deal", with no one article or section to be approved before all the others were in place. This reflected not only the interdependence of all the issues involved, but also the need to reach a delicate balance of compromises if the final document was to prove viable.

The first informal text was prepared in 1975 as a basis for negotiation. Over the next seven years, in negotiations in the three main committees of the Conference and in special negotiating and working groups, the text was to undergo several major revisions.

The final text of the new Convention was approved by the Conference at United Nations Headquarters on 30 April 1982, by a vote of 130 in favour to 4 against, with 17 abstentions. The Final Act of the Conference was approved by consensus in September and was signed by 117 States and two other entities at a formal ceremony at Montego Bay, Jamaica, on 10 December 1982, when the new United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea was opened for signature by Governments. The Convention will remain open for signature for two years, and for ratification or accession indefinitely. It will enter into force 12 months after it has been ratified by 60 States.

The Convention covers almost all human uses of the seas—navigation and overflight, resource exploration and exploitation, conservation and pollution, fishing and shipping. Its 321 articles and nine annexes constitute a guide for behaviour by nations in the world's oceans, defining maritime zones, laying down rules for drawing boundaries, assigning legal duties and responsibilities and providing machinery for settlement of disputes.

Some of the key features of the Convention are the following:

—coastal States would exercise sovereignty over their *territorial sea* of up to 12 miles in breadth, but foreign vessels would be allowed "innocent passage" through those waters for purposes of peaceful navigation;

—ships and aircraft of all countries would be allowed "transit passage" through *straits used for international navigation*, as long as they proceeded without delay and without threatening the bordering States; States alongside the straits would be able to regulate navigation and other aspects of passage;

—*archipelagic States*, made up of a group or groups of closely related islands and interconnecting waters, would have sovereignty over a sea area enclosed by straight lines drawn between the outermost points of the islands; all other States would enjoy the right of passage through sea lanes designated by the archipelagic States;

—coastal States would have sovereign rights in a 200-mile *exclusive economic zone* with respect to natural resources and certain economic activities, and would also have certain types of jurisdiction over marine science research and environmental protection; all other States would have freedom of navigation and overflight in the zone, as well as freedom to lay submarine cables and pipelines; land-locked and geographically disadvantaged States would have the opportunity to participate in exploiting part of the zone's fisheries when the coastal State could not harvest them all itself; highly migratory species of fish and marine mammals would be accorded special protection;

—coastal States would have sovereign rights over the *continental shelf* (the national area of the sea-bed) for the purpose of exploring and exploiting it; the shelf would extend at least 200 miles from shore, and 350 miles or even more under specified circumstances; coastal States would share with the international community part of the revenue they would derive from exploiting oil and other resources from any part of their shelf beyond 200 miles; a Commission on the Limits of the Continental Shelf would make recommendations to States on the shelf's outer boundaries;

—all States would enjoy the traditional freedoms of navigation, overflight, scientific research and fishing on the *high seas;* they would be obliged to adopt, or co-operate with other States in adopting, measures to manage and conserve living resources;

—the territorial sea, exclusive economic zone and continental shelf of *islands* would be determined in accordance with rules applicable to land territory, but rocks which could not sustain human habitation or economic life would have no economic zone or continental shelf;

—States bordering *enclosed or semi-enclosed seas* would be expected to co-operate on management of living resources and on environmental and research policies and activities;

—*land-locked States* would have the right of access to and from the sea and would enjoy freedom of transit through the territory of transit States;

—a "parallel system" would be established for exploring and exploiting the *international sea-bed area;* all activities in the area would be under the control of the International Sea-Bed Authority to be established under the Convention; the Authority would be authorized to conduct its own mining operations through its operating arm, the Enterprise, and also to contract with private and State ventures to give them mining rights in the area, so that they could operate in parallel with the Authority; the first generation of sea-bed prospectors, dubbed "pioneer investors", would have guarantees of production once mining was authorized;

—States would be bound to prevent and control *marine pollution* from any source and would be liable for damage caused by violation of their international obligations to combat marine pollution;

—all *marine scientific research* in the exclusive economic zone and on the continental shelf would be subject to the consent of the coastal State, but coastal States would in most cases be obliged to grant consent to foreign States when the research was to be conducted for peaceful purposes;

—States would be bound to promote the *development and transfer of marine technology* "on fair and reasonable terms and conditions", with proper regard for all legitimate interests, including the rights and duties of holders, suppliers and recipients of technology;

—States would be obliged to settle by peaceful means their *disputes* over the interpretation or application of the Convention; they would have to submit most types of disputes to a compulsory procedure entailing decisions binding on all parties. Disputes could be submitted to an International Tribunal for the Law of the Sea, to be established under the Convention; to the International Court of Justice; or to arbitration. Conciliation is also available and, in certain circumstances, submission to it may be compulsory.

With the signing of the new United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea in December 1982, a Preparatory Commission was established to pave the way for the two major institutions to be set up under the Convention—the International Sea-Bed Authority, with headquarters in Jamaica, and the International Tribunal for the Law of the Sea, to be located in Hamburg, Federal Republic of Germany.

The Commission is to draft rules, regulations and procedures for deep-sea-bed mining and other matters of concern to the future International Sea-Bed Authority and is also to implement a special régime which will allow "pioneer investors" in sea-bed mining development to acquire internationally recognized rights.

Establishment of the Preparatory Commission and of the pioneer investment scheme is provided for in two resolutions adopted by the Third United Nations Conference on the Law of the Sea on 30 April 1982 as part of a package with the Convention.

Apartheid

Apartheid, the most systematic form of institutionalized racial discrimination and segregation, has been practised by the Government of South Africa as official policy since 1948. Under *apartheid*, black South Africans, who represent the overwhelming majority of the people of the country, are denied their most fundamental rights and liberties. They are not allowed to participate in the political life of the country and are subject to hundreds of repressive laws and regulations. Both the General Assembly and the Security Council have declared *apartheid* incompatible with the Charter of the United Nations. The Assembly has condemned *apartheid* as a crime against humanity, and the Security Council, which has considered the question since 1960, has termed *apartheid* abhorrent to the conscience of mankind.

The racial policies of South Africa have been discussed by the United Nations since 1946, when India complained that South Africa had enacted legislation against South Africans of Indian origin. Beginning in 1952, the wider question of the policies of *apartheid* of the South African Government was included in the agenda of the General Assembly.

During the 1950s, the General Assembly made repeated appeals to the South African Government to revise its *apartheid* policies in the light of the principles of the Charter. South Africa, however, consistently maintained that the matter was within its domestic jurisdiction and that, under the Charter, the United Nations was barred from considering it. Since 1955, South Africa has not participated in the discussions of the question by the United Nations.

The principal United Nations decisions and actions with regard to the question of *apartheid* in South Africa in the period 1960-1982 are summarized below.

1960—The Security Council met at the request of 29 African and Asian Member States to consider "the situation arising out of the large-scale killings of unarmed and peaceful demonstrators against racial discrimination and segregation" in South Africa. This followed an incident at Sharpeville on 21 March in which South African police fired on peaceful demonstrators protesting the requirement that all Africans carry "reference books"; 69 persons were killed and 180 wounded.

The Council stated that the situation in South Africa had led to international friction and, if continued, might endanger international peace and security. It called on the South African Government to abandon its policy of *apartheid*.

1962—The General Assembly, in a resolution deploring the failure of South Africa to comply with the repeated requests and demands of the Assembly and the Security Council, asked Member States to break off diplomatic relations with South Africa, boycott South African goods and refrain from all exports to South Africa, including the export of armaments.

The Assembly established a special body, known since 1974 as the Special Committee against *Apartheid*, to keep the racial policies of the Government of South Africa under review. The Committee, composed of 18 Member States, was later given a wider mandate to review all aspects of South Africa's policies of *apartheid* and the international repercussions of those policies.

1963—The Security Council instituted a voluntary arms embargo against South Africa. Noting that some of the arms supplied to South Africa were being used to further its racial policies, the Council called on all States to stop the sale and shipment of arms, ammunition of all types and military vehicles to South Africa.

Both the Council and the Assembly asked the South African Government to grant unconditional release to all persons imprisoned for having opposed *apartheid*.

1965—The General Assembly established the United Nations Trust Fund for South Africa. The Fund is based on voluntary contributions from which grants are made to organizations for legal aid to persons persecuted under South Africa's repressive and discriminatory laws, relief to such persons and their dependents, and relief for refugees from South Africa.

1966—In commemoration of the 1960 Sharpeville incident, the General Assembly proclaimed 21 March as International Day for the Elimination of Racial Discrimination, to be observed annually.

1967—The General Assembly established the United Nations Educational and Training Programme for Southern Africa to provide scholarships for nationals of South Africa, Namibia and Southern Rhodesia for study and training abroad.

1970—The Security Council condemned violations of the arms embargo and called on all States to: strengthen the embargo and implement it unconditionally; withhold the supply of all vehicles, equipment and spare parts for use by South African military forces and paramilitary groups; revoke all licences and patents granted for South African manufacture of arms, aircraft or military vehicles; prohibit investment or technical assistance for arms manufacture; and cease military training and all other forms of military co-operation with South Africa.

The Assembly urged States to terminate diplomatic and other official relations, as well as economic and all other co-operation with South Africa. It condemned the establishment by South Africa of Bantu "homelands" (bantustans) and the forcible removal of the African people of South Africa and Namibia to those areas as a violation of their inalienable rights.

1972—The Security Council, meeting in Addis Ababa, recognized the legitimacy of the anti-*apartheid* struggle and requested all States to adhere strictly to the arms embargo.

1973—The General Assembly adopted the International Convention on the Suppression and Punishment of the Crime of *Apartheid (see page 85)*.

1974—The General Assembly invited representatives of the South African liberation movements recognized by the Organization of African Unity—the African National Congress of South Africa and the Pan Africanist Congress of Azania—to participate as observers in the debates on the question of *apartheid* in the Assembly's Special Political Committee. It later recognized the two organizations as "the authentic representatives of the overwhelming majority of the South African people" and invited them to participate as observers in the debates on the question of *apartheid* in the Assembly's plenary meetings.

The Assembly rejected South Africa's credentials and recommended that South Africa be totally excluded from participation in all international organizations and conferences held under United Nations auspices so long as it continued its policies of *apartheid*.

1975—The General Assembly proclaimed that the United Nations and the international community had a "special responsibility towards the oppressed people of South Africa and their liberation movements and towards those imprisoned, restricted or exiled for their struggle against *apartheid*". It reaffirmed the determination of the United Nations to devote increasing attention and all necessary resources for the speedy eradication of *apartheid* and the liberation of the South African people.

The Assembly established the Trust Fund for Publicity against South Africa to finance increased dissemination of information on the policies of *apartheid* of South Africa.

1976—The Security Council strongly condemned South Africa's aggression against Angola in March and its attack against Zambia in July as flagrant violations of the sovereignty and territorial integrity of those countries. In both cases, and in a number of other cases since then, the Council demanded that South Africa desist from using the international Territory of Namibia as a base for launching armed attacks against neighbouring African countries and called for international assistance to States bordering or surrounded by South Africa that have suffered economic hardship as a result of their support of United Nations efforts to isolate South Africa.

In June, following the shooting of demonstrators in Soweto, the Security Council strongly condemned South Africa for its resort to massive violence against and killings of Africans, including schoolchildren. The General Assembly proclaimed 26 June, the day of the uprising, as International Day of Solidarity with the Struggling People of South Africa. Later in 1976, it proclaimed 11 October as Day of Solidarity with South African Political Prisoners. Both Days are observed annually.

In October, the General Assembly rejected South Africa's declaration of "independence" of the Transkei, one of the "homelands" established by South Africa, and called on all States to deny any form of recognition to the Transkei and to prohibit all individuals, corporations and other institutions under their jurisdiction from any dealings with the Transkei or other bantustans. Subsequently, the Assembly rejected other "homelands" established as "independent States" by South Africa.

1977—On 4 November, the Security Council made the arms embargo against South Africa mandatory, the first time that such action had been taken against a Member State under Chapter VII of the Charter, which provides for enforcement action in cases such as threats to the peace. Expressing grave concern that South Africa was at the threshhold of producing nuclear weapons, the Council also decided that States should refrain from any co-operation with that country in the manufacture and development of such weapons. The Council established a committee to examine implementation by States of the mandatory arms embargo.

The World Conference for Action against *Apartheid*, organized by the Special Committee against *Apartheid* in co-operation with the Organization of African Unity, was held at Lagos in August.

In December, the General Assembly adopted the International Declaration against *Apartheid* in Sports, which calls on States to take all appropriate action to cease sporting contacts with any country practising *apartheid* and towards the exclusion or expulsion of any such country from international and regional sports bodies. The Assembly called for the preparation of an international convention on the subject.

1978—International Anti-*Apartheid* Year, proclaimed by the General Assembly, began on 21 March, International Day for the Elimination of Racial Discrimination.

1981—The International Conference on Sanctions against South Africa, held in Paris in May, called for further international action to isolate South Africa, including the imposition, under Chapter VII of the Charter, of sanctions as the "most appropriate and effective means to ensure South Africa's compliance with the decisions of the United Nations".

The General Assembly proclaimed 1982 International Year of Mobilization for Sanctions against South Africa with the main objectives of mobilizing world public opinion in support of comprehensive and mandatory sanctions against South Africa and of encouraging action by States, individually and collectively.

The Assembly also decided that 9 August, the anniversary of the 1956 march of women to the government offices in Pretoria in protest over the extension of pass laws to African women, should be observed annually as the International Day of Solidarity with the Struggle of Women in South Africa and Namibia.

1982—To achieve the objectives of the International Year, a number of conferences and seminars were held in different parts of the world. Also during the year, a declaration calling for the release of Nelson Mandela and other South African political prisoners was signed by over 2,000 mayors of cities around the world and widely circulated. On the occasion of the Day of Solidarity with the South African Political Prisoners, the Special Committee against *Apartheid* launched a world-wide campaign for the release of South African prisoners.

At its regular session, the General Assembly again called on the Security Council to impose comprehensive and mandatory sanctions against South Africa and requested all States to cease all collaboration with South Africa, including military and nuclear collaboration. The Assembly again called on the international community to render all necessary assistance to the people of South Africa and their liberation movement and to co-operate fully in effective international action to eliminate *apartheid* in South Africa, to promote the establishment of a democratic society in which all the people of that country will enjoy human and political rights, and to secure peace in the region.

THE UNITED NATIONS AT WORK FOR ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Most of the work of the United Nations, measured in terms of money and personnel, goes into programmes aimed at achieving economic and social progress in the developing countries, where two thirds of the world's people live, often in the grip of poverty, hunger, ignorance and disease.

Since its early days, the United Nations, carrying out the pledge in Article 55 of the Charter to "promote higher standards of living, full employment and conditions of economic and social progress and development", has supported the development efforts of the poorer countries.

Beginning in 1960, the General Assembly has proclaimed three successive United Nations Development Decades in order to focus international action on concrete programmes to aid developing countries. The Assembly has also adopted declarations, programmes of action and development strategies, designed to strengthen international co-operation for development.

Declaration on Social Progress and Development

In the 1960s, both the General Assembly and the Economic and Social Council increasingly stressed the need for a unified approach to economic and social planning to promote balanced and sound development. This emphasis on unified development is reflected in the provisions of the Declaration on Social Progress and Development, adopted by the General Assembly in 1969.

The Declaration states that social progress and development shall aim at raising the standards of living of all members of society through the attainment of a series of main goals, among them: the assurance at all levels of the right to work, to form trade unions and workers' associations and to bargain collectively; promotion of full productive employment and elimination of unemployment and underemployment; establishment of equitable and favourable conditions of work for all, including the improvement of health and safety conditions, and assurance of just remuneration for labour without any discrimination.

Other main goals set forth in the Declaration include the elimination of hunger, malnutrition and poverty, assurance of a just and equitable income distribution, achievement of the highest standards of health, eradication of illiteracy and assurance of the right to free compulsory education at the elementary level, and the provision for all of adequate housing and community services. Many of the provisions of the Declaration on Social Progress and Development were later incorporated in the International Development Strategy for the Third United Nations Development Decade.

New international economic order

Before the end of the First United Nations Development Decade (1961-1970), the need for a world plan of action or "strategy" for development became evident, and the General Assembly therefore adopted, in 1970, an international development strategy for the Second Development Decade (1971-1980), which set targets for progress and measures for achieving specific goals. The unanimous adoption of the International Development Strategy for the Second United Nations Development Decade was an important step in the promotion of international economic co-operation on a just and equitable basis.

Four years later, on 1 May 1974, at a special session on development, the General Assembly adopted the Declaration and Programme of Action on the Establishment of a New International Economic Order. In the Declaration, Member States solemnly proclaimed their determination to work urgently for "the establishment of a new international economic order based on equity, sovereignty, interdependence, common interest and co-operation among States, irrespective of their economic and social systems", which would "correct inequalities and redress existing injustices, make it possible to eliminate the widening gap between the developed and the developing countries and ensure steadily accelerating economic and social development in peace and justice for present and future generations".

The Programme of Action concerns changes in the structure of global production, consumption and trade. It looks to the progressive transformation of the economies of developing countries, now heavily dependent on primary products, by giving those countries a substantial share in world industrial production and trade. It calls for measures to make developing countries technologically self-sufficient and to ensure that they receive maximum benefits from the operations of transnational corporations and that they exercise full control over the use of their natural resources. Also called for are restructuring of the framework that governs trade, technology, money and financing, and the full participation of developing countries in international decision-making on these questions.

Charter of Economic Rights and Duties of States

To further promote the establishment of a new international economic order, the General Assembly adopted, in December 1974, the Charter of Economic Rights and Duties of States. The Charter stipulates that every State has the right freely to exercise full permanent sovereignty over its wealth and natural resources, to regulate foreign investments within its national jurisdiction, and to nationalize, expropriate or transfer the ownership of foreign property, and it provides that appropriate compensation should be paid in cases of nationalization and that any controversies should be settled under the domestic laws of the nationalizing States unless all States concerned agree to other peaceful means.

The Charter sets forth the right of States to associate in organizations of primary producers in order to develop their national economies. It also states that, as a prerequisite for development, it is the right and duty of all States, individually and collectively, to eliminate colonialism, racial discrimination and all forms of foreign aggression, and the attendant socio-economic consequences.

At another special session on development and international economic co-operation, held in September 1975, the General Assembly specified further measures to serve as the basis for concrete negotiations to be held within the United Nations system, with the participation of all States and within a specified time-frame, and to include major issues in the field of raw materials, energy, trade, development, money and finance. The Assembly also called for a restructuring of the economic and social sectors of the United Nations system so as to make it more fully capable of dealing with problems of international economic co-operation and development in a comprehensive and effective manner.

In 1979, the General Assembly called for the launching, at the third special session on development in 1980, of a round of global and sustained negotiations on international economic co-operation for development. The global negotiations called for by the Assembly did not achieve the hoped-for progress at the special session held in September 1980, but at the Assembly's regular session that year, an international development strategy for the Third United Nations Development Decade was adopted by consensus.

International Development Strategy for the Third United Nations Development Decade

The International Development Strategy for the Third United Nations Development Decade, adopted by the General Assembly on 5 December 1980, states that in an interdependent world economy, problems such as high inflation and unemployment, prolonged monetary instability and intensified protectionist pressures cannot be solved without resolving the particular problems facing the developing countries, and that accelerated development of developing countries is of vital importance for the steady growth of the world economy and essential for world peace and stability.

The Strategy for the Third United Nations Development Decade sets forth goals and objectives for an accelerated development of the developing countries in the period 1981-1990, including:

—a 7 per cent average annual rate of growth of gross domestic product;

—a 7.5 per cent annual rate of expansion of exports and an 8 per cent annual rate of expansion of imports of goods and services;

—an increase in gross domestic savings to reach about 24 per cent of gross domestic product by 1990;

—a rapid and substantial increase in official development assistance by all developed countries, to reach or surpass the agreed international target of 0.7 per cent of the gross national product of developed countries;

—a 4 per cent average annual rate of expansion of agricultural production; and

—a 9 per cent average annual rate of expansion of manufacturing output.

Other goals and objectives of the International Development Strategy include the attainment, by the year 2000, of full employment, of universal primary school enrolment and of life expectancy of 60 years as a minimum, with infant mortality rates no higher than 50 per 1,000 live births.

The Strategy also sets out a series of policy measures—in international trade, industrialization, food and agriculture, financial resources for development, international monetary and financial issues, science and technology for development, energy, transport, environment, human settlements, disaster relief and social development, as well as in technical co-operation, including co-operation among developing countries themselves, and special measures for the least developed countries and for geographically disadvantaged developing countries, such as island and land-locked countries. It calls for a review and reappraisal of the International Development Strategy to be carried out by the General Assembly in 1984.

United Nations programmes for economic and social development

The United Nations family—the United Nations itself and the various organizations and agencies related to it—is united in a global effort for the economic and social development of the developing countries, through programmes ranging from technical co-operation, to surveys and studies, to the convening of international conferences, and from comprehensive development planning to specific projects in individual fields such as trade, industry and agriculture.

To help Governments establish a more effective framework for growth, the United Nations offers aid in the preparation of national development plans to ensure balanced economic and social growth and the best use of available financial, physical and human resources. It helps developing countries mobilize the funds needed to pay for development programmes, both by increasing their own export earnings and by attracting outside capital at terms they can afford.

Increasing priority is being given to programmes for industrial development, the application of science and technology to development and the exploitation of new and renewable sources of energy. The United Nations helps Governments investigate and make maximum use of natural resources, modernize and expand transport and communications facilities and improve national statistical, budgetary and administrative services.

Other fields in which the United Nations family is helping developing countries include population assistance, housing and community development, land reform and protection of the environment.

The United Nations also has programmes geared to population groups—children, youth, women, the elderly, the disabled and refugees—and programmes of special social concern, such as drug abuse control and crime prevention.

Development projects for individual countries are carried out at the request of the Governments concerned. Other programmes are implemented on a regional basis, by the United Nations economic commissions—for Africa, for Asia and the Pacific, for Western Asia, for Latin America and for Europe. Still other questions, of global concern, call for the convening of international conferences with world-wide representation.

Among such global conferences convened in recent years are the following:

—United Nations Conference on the Human Environment (Stockholm, 1972);

—World Population Conference (Bucharest, 1974);

—World Food Conference (Rome, 1974);

—World Conference of the International Women's Year (Mexico City, 1975);

—Habitat: United Nations Conference on Human Settlements (Vancouver, 1976);

—United Nations Conference on Desertification (Nairobi, 1977);

—United Nations Water Conference (Mar del Plata, 1977);

—United Nations Conference on Technical Co-operation among Developing Countries (Buenos Aires, 1978);

—United Nations Conference on Science and Technology for Development (Vienna, 1979);

—World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (Rome, 1979);

—World Conference on the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace (Copenhagen, 1980);

—United Nations Conference on New and Renewable Sources of Energy (Nairobi, 1981);

—United Nations Conference on the Least Developed Countries (Paris, 1981);

—World Assembly on Aging (Vienna, 1982).

On the pages which follow, the various programmes of the United Nations family of organizations in support of economic and social development are briefly outlined. The activities of the intergovernmental agencies related to the United Nations are described in a separate section, beginning on page 105.

Technical co-operation for development

The United Nations and its family of organizations and agencies have long played a key role in stimulating and aiding technical co-operation for development. The International Development Strategy for the Third United Nations Development Decade calls for a renewed emphasis on technical co-operation and a significant increase in the resources provided for this purpose. It recognizes that technical co-operation makes an essential contribution to the efforts of developing countries to achieve self-reliance through its broad role of facilitating and supporting investment, research and training, among other things.

United Nations programmes of technical co-operation may be grouped in three categories:

—the United Nations regular programme of technical co-operation, which includes activities financed under the portion of the United Nations regular budget set aside for technical co-operation activities;

—activities funded by the United Nations Development Programme; and

—extrabudgetary activities, which include projects financed by contributions provided directly to the executing agencies by multilateral funding organizations within or outside the United Nations system, other than UNDP, and by unilateral or bilateral contributions from Governments and non-governmental organizations.

In order to consolidate under one authority the responsibilities and resources within the United Nations Secretariat in support of technical co-operation activities, the General Assembly, in March 1978, set up the Department of Technical Co-operation for Development (DTCD). As an executing agency for UNDP and a principal operational arm of the Secretariat, DTCD executes projects financed from the regular programme of technical co-operation and from extrabudgetary sources, providing technical expertise, training materials and direct advisory assistance to Governments in the formulation, implementation and evaluation of country and intercountry programmes and specific projects.

United Nations technical co-operation programmes and projects help Governments establish a more effective framework for growth by aiding in the preparation of comprehensive plans to ensure balanced economic and social development and the best use of available financial, physical and human resources; in investigating and making maximum use of natural resources such as water, minerals and energy supplies; in modernizing and expanding transport facilities; and in improving national statistical, budgetary and administrative services.

The United Nations is giving special attention to two problems found in many developing countries—rising populations and the movement of people from the country to the city, with an accompanying need for more housing, urban facilities and social services. Similarly, aid is offered in community development, to improve living conditions in both rural and urban areas; in land reform problems; and in efforts to deal more effectively with youth problems.

Other United Nations efforts for economic and social advancement include studies to compile information and analyse needs, and conferences at which experience is pooled and intergovernmental agreements may be drawn up—on trade questions, for example. Activities which meet needs on a regional level are carried out by the five regional commissions—for Africa, Asia and the Pacific, Western Asia, Latin America and Europe—aimed at strengthening economic relations within and outside the regions and furthering their economic and social development.

The UNITED NATIONS DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME (UNDP) is the world's largest channel for multilateral technical and pre-investment co-operation. It is active in some 150 countries and territories and in virtually every economic and social sector, including farming, fishing, forestry, mining, manufacturing, power, transport, communications, housing and building, trade and tourism, health and environmental sanitation, education and training, community development, economic planning and public administration.

There are more than 5,000 UNDP-supported projects currently in operation, at the regional, national, interregional and global levels, aimed at helping developing countries make better use of their assets, improve living standards and expand productivity. These projects involve:

—carrying out surveys and feasibility studies to determine the availability and economic value of a developing country's natural resources and to assess other potentials for increased output and wider distribution of goods and services;

—helping to mobilize the capital investments required to realize these potentials;

—expanding and strengthening educational systems from primary through university levels, and supporting a full spectrum of professional, vocational and technical instruction, from work-oriented literacy training to the provision of fellowships for specialized studies abroad;

—establishing facilities for applying modern technological research methods to priority development problems and for disseminating new discoveries and production techniques; and

—upgrading capabilities for economic and social development planning.

In all these areas, UNDP works to broaden economic and technical co-operation among the developing countries themselves.

UNDP assistance is rendered only at the request of Governments and in response to their priority needs, integrated into over-all national and regional plans. Almost all projects are carried out by the United Nations Department of Technical Co-operation for Development or one of 35 United Nations-related agencies, including all of the specialized agencies and the International Atomic Energy Agency *(see page 105)*, as well as the United Nations Industrial Development Organization, the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, the United Nations Children's Fund, the World Food Programme, the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, the United Nations Environment Programme and the United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (described in the pages that follow) and other organizations.

The volume of field development work being carried out under UNDP auspices is over $1.7 billion annually, with countries receiving UNDP assistance paying for well over half of all project costs.

UNDP also administers a number of special purpose funds and programmes, including: the United Nations Capital Development Fund, which provides grants and long-term loans for grassroots self-help activities in some of the world's poorest countries; the United Nations Revolving Fund for Natural Resources Exploration, which helps developing countries carry out potentially high-return mineral searches that they cannot afford on their own; the United Nations Sudano-Sahelian Office *(see page 76)*; the United Nations Volunteers *(page 71)*; and the United Nations Financing System for Science and Technology for Development.

UNDP is financed by voluntary contributions from Member States of the United Nations and its related agencies.

Trade and development

The first UNITED NATIONS CONFERENCE ON TRADE AND DEVELOPMENT (UNCTAD), held in Geneva in the spring of 1964, led to the establishment of UNCTAD as a permanent organ of the General Assembly in December of that year. Sessions of the Conference are held every few years—in 1968 (New Delhi), 1972 (Santiago), 1976 (Nairobi) and 1979 (Manila).

One of UNCTAD's principal functions is the negotiation and adoption of multilateral legal instruments in the field of international trade. Since its establishment, a number of such instruments have been negotiated and adopted under its auspices, beginning in 1964 with the General and Special Principles to govern international trade relations and trade policies conducive to development.

One of UNCTAD's major programmes aims at securing remunerative, equitable and stable prices for the primary commodities on which developing countries depend heavily for export earnings. Central to the programme, known as the Integrated Programme for Commodities, is the negotiation of agreements on specific commodities—natural rubber (1979), cocoa (1980) and tin (1981). These three agreements have as their principal objective the stabilization of conditions in the international trade of the commodities concerned and, for this purpose, establish pricing and supply arrangements. The rubber and tin agreements provide, for the first time in history, for mandatory financing of the buffer stock by producers and consumers.

An important element of the Integrated Programme for Commodities is the Agreement Establishing the Common Fund for Commodities, which was adopted by the United Nations Negotiating Conference on a Common Fund in 1980. The Common Fund, which will enter into force when it has been signed and ratified, accepted or approved by 90 States, will establish a new multilateral financial institution aimed at facilitating the conclusion and functioning of international commodity agreements, particularly concerning commodities of special interest to developing countries.

Other multilateral agreements in the field of international trade negotiated by UNCTAD include:

—the Convention on a Code of Conduct for Liner Conferences (1974), which establishes rules concerning the operation of liner shipping, in particular as regards the loading rights of national shipping lines in respect of liner cargoes generated by their countries' foreign trade;

—the Set of Multilaterally Agreed Equitable Principles and Rules for the Control of Restrictive Business Practices (1980), which establishes, for the first time, international means for the control of restrictive business practices, including those of transnational corporations, adversely affecting international trade, in particular the trade and economic development of developing countries; and

—the United Nations Convention on International Multimodal Transport of Goods (1980), which establishes an international legal régime for the contract for the international multimodal transport of goods.

Negotiations have been in progress since 1978 on an International Code of Conduct on the Transfer of Technology. The provisions of the proposed code fall into two broad groups: those concerning the regulation of the transfer of technology transactions and of the conduct of parties to them; and those relating to steps to be taken by Governments to meet their commitments to the Code.

Industrial development

The UNITED NATIONS INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT ORGANIZATION (UNIDO) was established by the General Assembly on 1 January 1967 to promote and accelerate the industrialization of the developing countries and to co-ordinate all United Nations activities in this field.

UNIDO provides assistance to developing countries in expanding, modernizing and operating their industries, and undertakes operational activities for the effective application of modern methods of industrial production, programming and planning, the establishment and strengthening of industrial institutions, the development, adaptation and transfer of technology, and the training of personnel.

It provides a forum and acts as an instrument for the developing and industrialized countries in their contacts, consultations and negotiations directed towards industrialization of the developing countries, and assists developing countries to obtain external financing for industrial projects. It also offers advisory services, in co-operation with other United Nations bodies, on the exploitation and efficient utilization of natural resources, industrial raw materials, by-products and new products.

UNIDO's operational activities include its Special Industrial Services programme, designed to supplement other United Nations industrial development activities by providing short-term and emergency aid to help solve urgent technical problems. It supports its operational activities by a programme of studies and research, and conducts symposia, seminars and training programmes dealing with specific industries and industrial techniques.

In addition, UNIDO helps to stimulate the flow of foreign resources to the industries of the developing countries by sponsoring meetings at which representatives of countries wishing to promote specific industrial projects can meet potential investors and suppliers of financial and technical resources. Efforts are also made to give developing countries access to current industrial and technical information.

The first International Conference of UNIDO was held in Vienna in 1971. The Second General Conference, held in Lima in 1975, proposed the conversion of UNIDO to the status of a United Nations specialized agency and established the United Nations Industrial Development Fund. It also adopted the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action, which calls for developing countries to reach the target of 25 per cent of world industrial output by the year 2000. The Third General Conference, held in New Delhi in 1980, reaffirmed the major Lima objectives and placed the system of consultation on a permanent basis.

In 1979, a conference of plenipotentiaries, meeting in Vienna, adopted a constitution for UNIDO. By 1982, the Constitution had been ratified by 80 States, thus paving the way for UNIDO to become the sixteenth specialized agency related to the United Nations when the 80 States have agreed, after consultations among themselves, that the Constitution shall enter into force.

As a specialized agency, UNIDO will have the same structure: the General Conference, which will meet once every two years, and the 53-member Industrial Development Board (33 members from developing countries, 15 from the developed market economy countries and five from the centrally planned economy countries).

Transnational corporations and development

The role of transnational corporations in the world economy, especially their impact on development and on international relations, became a subject of increasing concern to the Economic and Social Council in the 1970s and led to the establishment by the Secretary-

General of a Group of Eminent Persons intimately acquainted with international economic, trade and social problems.

The Group concluded that fundamental new problems had arisen as a direct result of the growing internationalization of production carried out by transnational corporations, and it urged that the international community, through the United Nations, tackle those problems without delay in order to ease tensions and fully realize the benefits that could be derived from those corporations.

On that basis, the Economic and Social Council decided in 1974 to establish the Commission on Transnational Corporations to act as a forum within the United Nations system for comprehensive and indepth consideration of issues relating to transnational corporations. The Commission has given high priority to formulating a code of conduct for transnational corporations.

The Council also established the United Nations Centre on Transnational Corporations. The work of the Centre aims at securing an effective code of conduct and other international arrangements and agreements relating to transnational corporations, enhancing the contribution of transnational corporations to development and minimizing their negative effects, and strengthening the capability of host developing countries in dealing with matters related to transnational corporations.

Science and technology for development

A major event of the first United Nations Development Decade (1960s) was the United Nations Conference on the Application of Science and Technology for the Benefit of the Less Developed Countries, held at Geneva in 1963. The Conference focused world attention on the practical possibilities of accelerating development through the application of advances in science and technology and on the need for reorienting research towards the requirements of the developing countries.

A second conference, the United Nations Conference on Science and Technology for Development, held in Vienna in 1979, adopted a Programme of Action designed to put science and technology to work for the economic development of all countries, particularly the developing countries. It recommended the creation by the General Assembly of a high-level intergovernmental committee on science and technology for development, open to all States, and the establishment of a voluntary fund, to be administered by UNDP.

The Programme of Action consists of 65 recommendations divided into three target areas: the first deals with strengthening the science and technology capacities of developing countries; the second concerns restructuring existing patterns of international scientific and technological relations; and the third contains recommendations for strengthening the role of the United Nations system in science and technology and the provision of increased financial resources.

Endorsing the recommendations of the Vienna Conference, the General Assembly decided to establish an Intergovernmental Committee on Science and Technology for Development, to be open to all States, and to create within the Secretariat a Centre for Science and Technology. In 1981, the Assembly established long-term arrangements for the United Nations Financing System for Science and Technology for Development, which became operative on 1 January 1982 and which has as its purpose the financing of a broad range of activities intended to strengthen the endogenous scientific and technological capacities of developing countries.

Natural resources and energy

In a 1952 resolution on the question of permanent sovereignty over natural resources, the General Assembly declared that developing countries had "the right to determine freely the use of their natural resources" and that they must use such resources towards realizing their economic development plans in accordance with their national interests.

The importance of natural resources for economic development was further emphasized in 1970, when the Economic and Social Council established the Committee on Natural Resources. The Committee develops guidelines for advisory services to Governments, reviews arrangements to co-ordinate United Nations activities in natural resources development and evaluates trends and salient issues concerning natural resources exploration and development, as well as prospects for selected energy and mineral resources.

In 1973, the General Assembly established the United Nations Revolving Fund for Natural Resources Exploration, which began operation in 1975. The Fund is financed from voluntary contributions and is intended to provide additional risk capital for mineral exploration in developing countries. In 1981, the Fund was authorized to extend its exploration activities to geothermal energy.

During the 1970s, with the rise and volatility of costs for petroleum which affected the economies of all countries, particularly those of the poorer countries, and the growing awareness that known supplies of petroleum would, in the long run, be unable to meet global requirements, more attention was focused on new and renewable sources of energy.

This led to the General Assembly's decision to convene the United Nations Conference on New and Renewable Sources of Energy, in Nairobi in August 1981. The Conference examined different alternative forms of energy, including solar energy, biomass energy, wind power, hydropower, fuelwood and charcoal, geothermal energy, ocean energy, oil shale and tar sands, peat and the use of draught animals for energy purposes. It adopted the Nairobi Programme of Action for the Development and Utilization of New and Renewable Sources of Energy, a blueprint for national and international action.

Endorsing the Nairobi Programme later that year, the General Assembly decided to establish an Interim Committee on New and Renewable Sources of Energy to launch implementation of the Programme and to recommend ways and means of mobilizing financial and other resources for the development of new and renewable sources of energy.

During the 1970s, the Committee on Natural Resources played a critical role in focusing world attention on another crisis—the status of the global stock of water resources to meet human, commercial and agricultural needs. As a result of an initiative of the Committee, the United Nations Water Conference was convened in 1977 in Mar del Plata, Argentina. The Conference adopted the Mar del Plata Action Plan to guide international efforts to effectively manage, develop and use water resources. In 1980, the General Assembly launched the International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade (1981-1990).

Protection of the environment

The first United Nations Conference on the Human Environment was held in Stockholm in June 1972, following a 1968 decision of the General Assembly that action at the national, regional and international levels was needed to limit the impairment of the human environment and protect and improve man's natural surroundings.

The Conference adopted a Declaration on the Human Environment that proclaims the right of human beings to a quality environment and their responsibility to protect and improve the environment for future generations. It also adopted an Action Plan, containing over 100 recommendations for measures to be taken by Governments and international organizations to protect life, control contamination from man-made pollutants and improve cities and other human settlements.

Later in 1972, on the basis of the Conference's recommendations, the General Assembly created the UNITED NATIONS ENVIRONMENT PROGRAMME (UNEP) to monitor significant changes in the environment and to encourage and co-ordinate sound environmental practices. The first United Nations agency to be based in a developing country, UNEP has its headquarters in Nairobi.

UNEP's programmes include "Earthwatch", an international surveillance network with three main components: a Global Environmental Monitoring System, which monitors selected environmental parameters to provide Governments with the information necessary to understand, anticipate and combat adverse environmental changes, whether man-made or natural; INFOTERRA, a computerized referral service to 20,000 sources in 100 countries for environmental information and expertise; and the International Register of Potentially Toxic Chemicals, which works through a network of national correspondents to provide scientific and regulatory information on chemicals that may be dangerous to health and the environment.

Other major programmes of UNEP include implementation, in the Sudano-Sahelian region of Africa, of the Plan of Action to combat the spread of deserts adopted by the 1977 United Nations Conference on Desertification. The Plan comprises integrated national and international programmes of land reclamation and management.

UNEP's efforts against marine pollution, begun with a pilot programme in the Mediterranean, now also include anti-marine pollution programmes for the Kuwait region, the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden, the Wider Caribbean, East, West and Central Africa, the East Asian Seas and the south-east and south-west Pacific.

In the area of environmental law, UNEP's efforts have included the development of guidelines or principles regarding the harmonious utilization by States of shared natural resources; offshore mining and drilling, and the preparation of an international convention on the ozone layer. Other important activities include the preparation of regional conventions for the protection of the marine environment and related technical protocols.

In the field of energy, UNEP has supported pilot projects designed to produce energy from the sun and wind and from household and agricultural wastes, as well as a comprehensive study on the environmental impacts of the production, use and transport of various types of energy. UNEP is also concerned with promoting technical assistance, education and training for management of the environment.

At a Session of a Special Character of UNEP's Governing Council, held at UNEP headquarters in May 1982, over 100 Governments reviewed the environmental achievements and shortcomings of the international community since Stockholm and charted the main lines of action for UNEP in the 1980s. The Session adopted the Declaration of Nairobi, which sets out the major problems to be addressed in the future by Governments, international agencies and the public at large, and reaffirms the commitment of Governments to the objectives of the Stockholm Plan of Action and the principles of the Stockholm Declaration, which they considered "an environmental code of conduct as valid today as it was in 1972".

Human settlements

United Nations concern with the problems of human settlements, particularly with the deteriorating quality of living conditions and the need to link urban and regional development programmes with national plans, led to the convening of the first international conference on the subject—Habitat: United Nations Conference on Human Settlements—in Vancouver, in May/June 1976.

The Vancouver Declaration on Human Settlements and the Vancouver Plan of Action, adopted by the Conference, represented an important commitment on the part of Governments and the international community to improve the quality of life for all people through human settlements development. The Plan of Action contains 64 recommendations for national action concerning settlements policies, settlement planning, provision of shelter, infrastructure and services, land use and land tenure, the role of popular participation, and effective institutions and management.

The Vancouver Conference also recommended the strengthening and consolidation of United Nations activities in a single organization concerned exclusively with human settlements. Acting on this recommendation, the General Assembly, in 1978, established the UNITED NATIONS CENTRE FOR HUMAN SETTLEMENTS (HABITAT), with headquarters in Nairobi, to serve as a focal point for human settlements action and to co-ordinate human settlements activities within the United Nations system.

Under its work programme, based on the Vancouver Plan of Action, the Centre's major areas of concern include provision of technical assistance to government programmes, organization of expert meetings, workshops and training seminars, publication of technical documents and dissemination of information through the establishment of a global information network.

Technical co-operation projects in all developing regions of the world cover such areas as national settlement policies and programmes, urban and regional planning, rural and urban housing and infrastructure development, slum upgrading and sites-and-services schemes, low-cost building technology, technologies for urban and rural water supply and sanitation systems, and the establishment or strengthening of government institutions concerned with human settlements.

In 1982, the General Assembly proclaimed 1987 the International Year of Shelter for the Homeless and decided that the objectives of the Year would be to improve the shelter situation of the poor and disadvantaged at both individual and community levels, particularly in developing countries, both before and during 1987, and to demonstrate means of continuing those efforts as on-going national programmes beyond 1987.

World food problems

While the United Nations has long been involved in working towards solutions to the age-old problem of food shortages, in 1974 a major effort was launched to tackle food crisis situations that had developed in many parts of the world. The United Nations World Food Conference, held in Rome in November 1974, called on the General Assembly to establish a 36-nation ministerial-level WORLD FOOD COUNCIL to review annually major problems and policy issues affecting the world food situation and to bring its political influence to bear on Governments and United Nations bodies and agencies alike.

The World Food Council's approach to solving world food problems and eliminating hunger is to encourage the adoption—by developing countries, where most of the world's one billion hungry people live and which do not produce enough to feed their populations—of national food strategies. Under this plan, each country assesses its present food situation—needs, supply, potential for increasing food production (including land and its distribution), storage, processing, transport, distribution and marketing facilities, legislative and administrative policies and machinery affecting food, availability of inputs (including seeds and fertilizers), infrastructure (including irrigation networks and roads), technology, research, training and manpower in the food sector, and the ability to meet food emergencies. It then works out a plan to improve its food situation, so that enough food of sufficient nutritional value reaches all the people in the country. The aim of the food strategies is to build a greater degree of food self-reliance in the countries where the need is greatest and to assure that the peoples' consumption needs are addressed.

Some 30 countries, with a total population exceeding 500 million, have decided to adopt food strategies, and most have requested assistance from the World Food Council for their preparation. Official development assistance from donor countries needed to support the food strategies and programmes of developing countries in the period 1982-1987 has been estimated at $8 billion to $12 billion a year.

In addition to its efforts to increase food production in developing countries, the World Food Council seeks to promote the establishment of an effective system of world food security through more open trade and assurances of continuity of food supplies for developing countries, as well as reserve programmes in support of a larger measure of food self-sufficiency.

Other United Nations programmes concerned with food aid include the World Food Programme, which it sponsors jointly with FAO *(see page 108)* and the International Fund for Agricultural Development *(page 120)*.

Population assistance

The United Nations has been concerned with population questions since its earliest years. The Population Commission was set up in 1947 as one of the functional commissions of the Economic and Social Council.

The early work of the United Nations on population questions concentrated on the improvement of demographic statistics, which were lacking for large parts of the world, and then began to focus on the application of statistical data in analytical studies and in the preparation of world-wide population estimates and projections. The first *Demographic Yearbook* was published by the United Nations Statistical Office in 1948.

In the 1960s, however, the extraordinarily rapid rate at which the world's population was growing became an urgent concern (between 1950 and 1960, world population increased from 2.5 billion to over 3 billion, and it was projected to more than double by the year 2000).

In 1966, the General Assembly adopted a historic resolution authorizing the United Nations to provide technical assistance in population and, the following year, the Assembly established a Trust Fund for Population Activities, renamed in 1969 the UNITED NATIONS FUND FOR POPULATION ACTIVITIES (UNFPA), to provide additional resources to the United Nations system for technical co-operation activities in the population field.

In 1972, the Fund was placed under the authority of the General Assembly, which designated the Governing Council of UNDP as its governing body. Financing comes from voluntary governmental contributions.

In 1974, designated by the General Assembly as World Population Year, the World Population Conference, held in Bucharest, Romania, adopted a World Population Plan of Action, which stressed the fundamental relationship between population factors and over-all economic and social development.

UNFPA's role is to build up the capacity to respond to needs in population and family planning, to promote understanding of population factors (population growth, fertility, mortality, spatial distribution and migration), to assist Governments to develop population goals and programmes, and to provide financial assistance to implement them.

UNFPA works in eight main areas:

—family planning, including delivery systems, programme management and fertility regulation techniques;

—communication and education, including communication for family-planning motivation, population education in schools, and out-of-school programmes;

—basic data collection, including population censuses, vital statistics registration, and surveys;

—population dynamics, including analysis of demographic data, determinants and consequences of population trends, and the interaction of demographic and socio-economic variables;

—formulation of population policies and programmes, including evaluation of policies, and integration of demographic factors into social and economic plans;

—implementation of policies and programmes, including "beyond family planning" programmes and programmes to influence demographic trends;

—special programmes—for women, children and youth, the aged, the poorest of the poor, the handicapped; and

—multisector activities, including population conferences, documentation centres, clearing-houses and interdisciplinary training.

UNFPA is now the largest internationally funded source of assistance to population programmes in developing countries. The major portion of UNFPA's funds, almost all of which come from Governments, has been allocated to family-planning projects.

UNFPA itself executes 30 per cent of its projects; other executing agencies are the United Nations, UNICEF, UNESCO, ILO, WHO and FAO.

UNFPA also co-operates with non-governmental organizations such as the International Planned Parenthood Federation.

An International Conference on Population was scheduled to be held in Mexico in August 1984 to review and appraise the 1974 World Population Plan of Action, adopted in Bucharest, and to provide new directions for the coming decades on the integration of population with development.

Assistance to children

The United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) was created by the General Assembly during its first session, in 1946, to meet the emergency needs of children in post-war Europe and China for food, drugs and clothing. In 1950, the Assembly changed the main emphasis of the Fund's mandate to programmes of long-range benefit to children of developing countries. Three years later, the Assembly decided that UNICEF should continue this work indefinitely; its name was changed to the UNITED NATIONS CHILDREN'S FUND, but the well-known acronym "UNICEF" was retained.

Combining humanitarian and development objectives, UNICEF co-operates with developing countries in their efforts to protect their children and to enable them to develop their full potential. This co-operation takes place within the context of national development efforts and has as its goal the realization for every child of the opportunity to enjoy the basic rights and privileges embodied in the Declaration of the Rights of the Child, adopted by the General Assembly in 1959, and to contribute to their country's progress and well-being.

UNICEF co-operates with developing countries in several ways:

—it assists in the planning and extension of services benefiting children, in consultation with the countries concerned, and in the exchange of experience between countries;

—it provides funds to strengthen the training and orientation of national personnel, including health and sanitation workers, teachers, nutritionists and child-welfare specialists; and

—it delivers technical supplies, equipment and other aids, ranging from paper for textbooks to equipment and medicines for health clinics to pipes and pumps bringing clean water to villages.

Under its Basic Services strategy, adopted in 1976, UNICEF assists Governments to plan, develop and extend—in both rural and urban environments—low-cost community-based services in the interrelated fields of maternal and child health, applied nutrition, clean water and sanitation, formal and non-formal education, responsible parenthood and supporting services for women and girls.

While UNICEF assistance is directed primarily towards long-range programmes for children, it moves swiftly to meet the immediate needs of children and mothers in emergencies arising from natural disasters, civil strife or epidemics. Emergency relief is followed by long-range rehabilitation programmes.

UNICEF depends entirely on voluntary contributions to finance its activities. Nearly three quarters of its income derives from Governments; the rest comes from organizations and individuals, through greeting-card sales and various fund-raising campaigns.

When the General Assembly designated 1979, the twentieth anniversary of the adoption of the Declaration of the Rights of the Child, as the International Year of the Child, UNICEF served as the "lead agency", co-ordinating the activities of the United Nations system. The aim of the Year was to encourage all countries to review their programmes for the promotion of the well-being of children and to mobilize support for national and local action.

UNICEF was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in 1965.

The role of women in development

International recognition of the important role that women play and should continue to play in the development process and of the need to intensify action to improve their condition has been gaining in recent years, particularly since 1975, which the General Assembly proclaimed as International Women's Year, focusing on the threefold objective of equality, development and peace.

Recognition of women's role in development culminated in the incorporation, into the International Development Strategy for the Third United Nations Development Decade, of special provisions aimed at securing women's equal participation, both as agents and as beneficiaries, in all sectors and at all levels of the development process. Thus, women's increased participation in the economic, social, political and cultural fields is an accepted objective of the international community and is being sought actively at the national, regional and international levels.

The highlight of International Women's Year was the convening in Mexico City of the first intergovernmental conference on women. The World Conference of the International Women's Year brought together more than 1,000 representatives, about 70 per cent of them women, from more than 130 countries. The Conference adopted the Declaration of Mexico on the Equality of Women and Their Contribution to Development and Peace, and a World Plan of Action for the implementation of the objectives of the International Women's Year.

The World Plan of Action set 14 minimum objectives, including:

—a marked increase in literacy and civic education of women;

—extension of co-educational technical and vocational training in industry and agriculture;

—equal access to education at every level, and compulsory primary school education;

—increased employment opportunities, and reduction of unemployment and discrimination in the terms and conditions of employment;

—equal eligibility to vote and to seek elected office;

—greater participation of women in policy-making positions, locally, nationally and internationally;

—increased welfare services in health education, sanitation, nutrition and family-planning education;

—parity in the exercise of civil, social and political rights; and

—recognition of the value of women's work in the home, in domestic food production, in marketing and in other non-remunerated activities.

Later in 1975, the General Assembly endorsed the proposals of the Mexico Conference and proclaimed the period 1976-1985 as the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace. The Assembly called for the Decade to be devoted to effective and sustained action to implement the World Plan of Action, and it decided to convene in 1980, at the mid-term of the Decade, another world conference to review and evaluate the progress made. At the same time, the Assembly established a Voluntary Fund for the Decade and also approved the creation of the International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women, which began operations in 1979.

The World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace, held in Copenhagen in July 1980, adopted a Programme of Action for the second half of the Decade, 1980-1985, to promote the three objectives of equality, development and peace, with special emphasis on the subtheme—employment, health and education. It delineated specific action to ensure that the objectives of the World Plan were met at the end of the Decade.

The Copenhagen Conference provided an occasion for assessing the condition of women against the objectives established in the World Plan of Action and also against the conditions then prevailing in the world. In so doing, it served to advance international understanding of the fact that women, far from being simply a social welfare sector or a disadvantaged group, were an integral part of every global concern in the areas of equality, development and peace.

On the recommendation of the Conference, the General Assembly decided to convene in 1985, at the conclusion of the Decade, a World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the United Nations Decade for Women.

In 1982, the General Assembly adopted a Declaration on the Participation of Women in Promoting International Peace and Co-operation, which states that special national and international measures are necessary to increase the level of women's participation in international relations so that women can contribute, on an equal basis with men, to national and international efforts to secure world peace and economic and social progress and to promote international co-operation.

See also Women's rights, *page 86.*

Youth and development

Ever since the adoption by the General Assembly in 1965 of the Declaration on the Promotion among Youth of the Ideals of Peace, Mutual Respect and Understanding between Peoples, the Assembly has stressed the importance of the role of youth in today's world, especially its potential contribution to development, and has proposed that Governments give youth an opportunity to take part in preparing and carrying out national development plans and international co-operation programmes.

Other recommendations made to Member States by the Assembly relate to the preparation of youth, through education, for full participation in all aspects of life and development; health policies and programmes which would ensure that young people are able to take advantage of opportunities open to them; and the adoption of all possible means to increase employment for youth.

Young people had an opportunity to express their views on the problems before the United Nations at a World Youth Assembly held in July 1970, at Headquarters. The first such meeting ever organized by the United Nations, it brought together some 650 participants from all over the world.

In the same year, the General Assembly established the UNITED NATIONS VOLUNTEERS Programme. The Programme, which is administered by UNDP, is open to men and women over the age of 21 who meet the required educational and professional standards and possess the necessary health and personal qualifications.

United Nations Volunteers, generally young professionals who are assigned under modest conditions of service and payment, serve in both UNDP and United Nations-assisted projects, as well as development programmes carried out directly by host Governments. Volunteers range from agronomists, foresters and surveyors to mechanics, economists and doctors.

Global recruitment—with over half the Volunteers from developing countries—gives practical effect to the concept of technical co-operation among developing countries. Volunteers are sent to a country only at the request, and with the approval of, the host Government. They work on specific development projects, often under the supervision of more experienced experts but sometimes on their own.

The Programme provides an opportunity for younger professionals from many nations to gain experience in international or national development programmes and to share their experience on returning home. It also serves to increase public understanding of development work.

The General Assembly has decided to proclaim 1985 International Youth Year, with the theme "Participation, Development and Peace" and with the aim of bringing about widespread awareness of the situation of youth, their problems and aspirations, with a view to engaging young people in the development process. A Trust Fund for International Youth Year was established to supplement the United Nations regular budget designed for youth activities.

The elderly and aging

The question of the elderly, a rapidly growing sector of the world's population, was first discussed by the General Assembly in 1969. Since then, the United Nations has given increasing attention to the needs of older persons and to the question of the aging of populations world-wide.

In 1973, the Assembly considered a comprehensive report which noted the demographic increase in the absolute and relative size of the older populations of the world (a trend that was expected to continue because of medical advances and decreases in birth and death rates) and which estimated that the number of persons 60 years of age or over throughout the world would increase by 100 per cent between 1970 and the year 2000.

The Assembly recommended guidelines to Governments in their formulation of policies for the elderly, including action to develop programmes for the welfare, health and protection of older people and their retraining in accordance with their needs, in order to maximize their economic independence and their social integration with other segments of the population.

In 1978, the General Assembly decided to convene a world assembly for the purpose of launching "an international action programme aimed at guaranteeing economic and social security to older persons", as well as opportunities for them to contribute to national development. The Assembly later decided that the conference should also consider the interrelated issue of the aging of whole populations.

The World Assembly on Aging, held in Vienna in July-August 1982, was attended by representatives of more than 120 countries. It adopted an International Plan of Action, which emphasizes the need for planning—both to help the aging as individuals and to deal with the long-term social and economic effects of aging populations. Recommendations contained in the Plan of Action cover:

—the need to help the elderly lead independent lives in their own family and community for as long as possible, instead of being excluded and cut off from all activities of society;

—the importance of giving the elderly a choice as to the kind of health care they receive, and the importance of preventive care, including nutrition and exercise;

—the need to provide support services to assist families, particularly low-income families, to continue to care for elderly relatives; and

—the need to provide social-security schemes, to assist the elderly in finding, or returning to, employment and to provide appropriate housing.

The Plan of Action also includes recommendations for meeting the needs of particularly vulnerable groups, such as elderly refugees and migrant workers.

Disabled persons

Under the Charter principles of the dignity and worth of the human being and the promotion of social justice, the General Assembly has acted to protect the rights of disabled persons.

In 1971, it adopted the Declaration on the Rights of the Mentally Retarded, which states that retarded persons have, to the maximum degree feasible, the same rights as other human beings, including the right to medical care, education and training, and economic security.

The Declaration on the Rights of Disabled Persons, adopted by the Assembly in 1975, proclaims that the disabled have the same civil and political rights as other human beings. In cases where the rights of mentally retarded persons may have to be limited or suppressed, the Assembly declared that there must be legal safeguards against any form of abuse. The Declaration sets out the right of disabled persons to treatment and services that would develop their capabilities to the maximum and hasten their social integration or reintegration. Other provisions include their right to economic and social security and to employment or a useful and remunerative occupation.

When the General Assembly decided to proclaim 1981 International Year for the Disabled, it called for a plan of action for the Year at the national, regional and international levels, with the emphasis on primary health care, rehabilitation and prevention of disability. The Year's purpose, and its theme, was the promotion of "full participation and equality", defined as the right of disabled persons to take part fully in the life and development of their societies, to enjoy living conditions equal to those of other citizens and to have an equal share in improved conditions resulting from socio-economic development. Other objectives of the Year included increasing public understanding of disability and encouraging disabled persons to organize themselves to express their views effectively.

During the Year, national committees were set up in more than 140 countries to map out plans of action to implement the objectives of the Year. Regional seminars—for Asia and the Pacific, Africa, Latin America, Western Asia and Europe—held during the Year discussed regional co-operation on behalf of disabled persons. At the international level, organizations of the United Nations system and other intergovernmental organizations, as well as non-governmental organizations, discussed ways in which the world community could aid the disabled through technical co-operation and other means.

The Year's activities were followed by the Assembly's adoption, in 1982, of a World Programme of Action concerning Disabled Persons, aimed at continuing long-term programmes at the national, regional and international levels.

Refugees

According to the Statute of the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, a refugee is a person who, owing to a well-founded fear of persecution for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country.

The essential problems of refugees, and the necessary solutions to them, have been the same throughout history and across the world: refugees need to be fed, clothed and sheltered; they need to find new homes if they cannot return to their old ones; they want to go back home if they can, and often need help to do so.

The Office of the UNITED NATIONS HIGH COMMISSIONER FOR REFUGEES (UNHCR) was established by the General Assembly in 1950 to protect refugees and promote durable solutions to their problems. UNHCR depends entirely on voluntary contributions from Governments and private sources for its programmes for the more than 10 million refugees under its care.

The basic function of UNHCR is to extend international protection to refugees who, by definition, do not enjoy the protection of their former home country. In the exercise of this function, UNHCR seeks to ensure that refugees receive asylum and are granted a favourable legal status in their asylum country. An essential element of this legal status is the safeguard provided by the generally accepted principle of *non-refoulement*, which prohibits expulsion or forcible return of a person to a country where he may have reason to fear persecution. UNHCR also seeks to ensure that persons claiming to be refugees are identified as such so as to enable them to take advantage of the standards in international instruments or under international law.

The legal status of refugees has been defined more specifically in two international instruments—the 1951 Convention and the 1967 Protocol relating to the status of refugees—which define the rights and duties of refugees and contain provisions dealing with a variety of matters in the day-to-day life of the refugee, such as the right to work, public assistance and social security. In regard to many of these matters, refugees are to receive the same treatment as nationals of their country of residence.

In extending international protection to refugees, UNHCR also seeks to facilitate their voluntary repatriation in cases where this is a feasible solution.

Material assistance is also essential to enable refugees or displaced persons to achieve permanent solutions to their problems, whether it be through voluntary repatriation, local settlement in the country of first asylum or migration to another country. Material assistance measures vary widely according to need. Integration through rural settlement is in general the best solution for refugees of rural background who cannot hope to repatriate for some time; in Africa, in particular, UNHCR helps refugees to settle on the land through the establishment of new rural communities or through strengthening the infrastructure of areas where the refugees can be absorbed spontaneously into the local population.

Assistance in voluntary repatriation may involve a large-scale transportation and settlement operation, as in the case of former refugees from Zimbabwe and Nicaragua, or may simply entail the payment of travel expenses for individuals.

Resettlement in other countries of Latin American and Indo-Chinese refugees are examples of instances where UNHCR's role has been to negotiate with Governments to encourage the admission of refugees or displaced persons.

UNHCR has for many years helped to organize special resettlement schemes for handicapped refugees who could not qualify under normal immigration criteria because of physical or social handicaps. In addition, family reunion is an essential activity to enable families separated by circumstances beyond their control to make a new life together again. Finally, counselling plays an important role in helping individual refugees find the most appropriate solutions to their problems.

UNHCR was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in 1954 and in 1981.
(See also UNRWA, *page 27.)*

Disaster relief and special economic assistance

Following a series of major disasters in the late 1960s, the need for further support of world-wide emergency relief assistance, which had been provided for many years by individual Governments, United Nations agencies, the Red Cross and other voluntary agencies, became increasingly apparent.

In 1971, the General Assembly decided to establish a central office within the United Nations for the purpose of mobilizing relief more rapidly, co-ordinating it more systematically and reducing risks of waste or duplication of effort or of failure to supply essential items. It was also recognized that much more could and should be done to improve advance contingency planning and preparedness and to harness modern scientific and technological knowledge for the prevention of disasters and the mitigation of their effects.

The Office of the UNITED NATIONS DISASTER RELIEF CO-ORDINATOR (UNDRO) began operations in March 1972, with headquarters in Geneva. It is a focal point and clearing-house for information on relief needs and on what donors are sending to meet those needs. UNDRO also mobilizes and co-ordinates the relief assistance of the various organizations of the United Nations system and co-ordinates that assistance with what is given by others. During the first 10 years of its existence, UNDRO was involved in more than 215 major disasters, and $1,200 million worth of international assistance were reported to it, mobilized by it or channelled through it.

UNDRO's functions include:

—gathering information from many sources on individual disaster situations and disseminating that information to Governments and other potential donors of aid; to this end, UNDRO operates a Co-ordination Centre equipped with modern computerized telecommunications facilities;

—organizing and leading missions to assess needs arising from natural disasters and other disaster situations;

—making direct contact with potential donors, mobilizing relief contributions in cash and kind and ensuring the rapid transport of relief supplies to the disaster-stricken country or countries; and

—maintaining contact during the post-emergency phase with a view to advising Governments on the inclusion of disaster-prevention concepts in rehabilitation or reconstruction programmes and on the improvement of disaster preparedness planning generally.

UNDRO also promotes the study, prevention, control and prediction of natural disasters and provides Governments that request it with assistance in pre-disaster planning.

The Sudano-Sahelian region of Africa, which was afflicted by a disastrous drought in the late 1960s and early 1970s, provides an example of United Nations disaster relief coupled with long-range assistance. The UNITED NATIONS SUDANO-SAHELIAN OFFICE (UNSO) was established in 1973 to assist in medium- and long-term rehabilitation and development programmes of the Sahel's eight stricken countries—Cape Verde, Chad, Gambia, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Senegal and Upper Volta. Projects are financed in part by the United Nations Fund for Sudano-Sahelian Activities.

The United Nations also provides special assistance to countries, mainly in Africa, facing severe economic and financial difficulties and requiring aid for reconstruction, rehabilitation and development. Many of these countries are among the least-developed in the world and some are also geographically handicapped—that is, land-locked or island countries.

International control of narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances

Control of narcotic drugs has been a world concern ever since the first international conference on the subject was held in Shanghai in 1909. The international control system has been built up step by step, beginning in 1920 under the auspices of the League of Nations and since 1946 by the United Nations.

A series of treaties adopted under the auspices of the United Nations require that Governments exercise control over production and distribution of narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances, combat illicit traffic, maintain the necessary administrative machinery and report to international organs on their actions.

This international régime includes:

—the *Single Convention on Narcotic Drugs*, 1961 (in force since 1964), which consolidated earlier treaties on natural or synthetic narcotics, cannabis and cocaine;

—the *Convention on Psychotropic Substances of 1971* (in force since 1976), which covered hallucinogens, amphetamines, barbiturates, nonbarbiturate sedatives and tranquillizers; and

—the *Protocol of 1972 Amending the Single Convention* (in force since 1975), which highlighted the need for treatment and rehabilitation of drug addicts.

The central objective of these treaties is to limit the supply of and demand for narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances to medical and scientific needs. The Commission on Narcotic Drugs, one of the functional commissions of the Economic and Social Council, considers all matters pertaining to the aims of the treaties and the implementation of their provisions, and makes recommendations to the Council on the control of narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances. The Commission is thus the main policy-making body for international drug control within the United Nations system and has primary responsibility for amending the schedules to the international treaties in order to bring substances under international control or change the régime of control to which they are subject. The Division of Narcotic Drugs acts as secretariat to the Commission and also carries out various functions entrusted to the Secretary-General under the international drug control treaties.

The International Narcotics Control Board, which began operating in 1968, is responsible for the continuous evaluation and over-all supervision of governmental implementation of drug control treaties. It reviews and confirms annual estimates of licit narcotic drug requirements submitted by Governments which limit the manufacture and trade in narcotic drugs, and also monitors the licit movement of psychotropic substances. It may, in cases of breaches of the treaties, require Governments to adopt remedial measures, and it may bring treaty violations to the attention of the parties, the Economic and Social Council and the Commission on Narcotic Drugs.

The United Nations Fund for Drug Abuse Control, established in 1971, assists Governments by helping finance projects aimed at reducing the illicit supply of and demand for drugs—for example, projects to replace illicit opium cultivation, treat and rehabilitate drug addicts, strengthen control measures or organize information and education programmes. The Fund relies entirely on voluntary contributions, mainly from Governments but also from private sources.

In 1981, faced with the increasing seriousness of the drug problem in the world, the General Assembly called for an international campaign against traffic in drugs. It also adopted an International Drug Abuse Control Strategy and a five-year programme which calls for integrated action at the national, regional and international levels, coordinated through the United Nations.

Prevention of crime and treatment of offenders

United Nations work in the field of crime prevention and criminal justice has two main purposes: to lessen the human and material costs of crime and its impact on socio-economic development, and to promote the observance of international standards and norms in criminal justice. To this end, the United Nations furthers the dissemination and exchange of information, the training of personnel and direct aid to Governments at their request.

To provide a forum for the presentation of policies and to stimulate progress, the General Assembly in 1950 authorized the convening every five years of a United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders. Participants in the congresses include criminologists, penologists and senior police officers, as well as experts in criminal law, human rights and rehabilitation.

—the First Congress, held in Geneva in 1955, approved a set of Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners, which the Economic and Social Council adopted in 1957;

—the Second Congress (London, 1960) dealt with measures for preventing juvenile delinquency and considered the questions of prison labour, parole and after-care;

—the Third Congress (Stockholm, 1965) approved measures for crime prevention action by the community and for combating recidivism;

—the Fourth Congress (Tokyo, 1970) stressed the need to take crime into account in development planning, particularly in view of the effects of urbanization, industrialization and the technological revolution on the human environment;

—the Fifth Congress (Geneva, 1975) adopted the Declaration on the Protection of All Persons from Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman and Degrading Treatment or Punishment, which the General Assembly approved later the same year; it also laid the basis for the Code of Conduct for Law Enforcement Officials, which was approved by the General Assembly in 1979;

—the Sixth Congress (Caracas, 1980) dealt with such topics as crime trends and crime prevention strategies, juvenile delinquency, crime and the abuse of power, and deinstitutionalization of corrections; the Caracas Declaration was endorsed later in 1980 by the General Assembly.

United Nations research and training activities in the field of crime prevention and control are furthered by the United Nations Social Defence Research Institute, headquartered in Rome, by regional training and research institutes in Asia and the Far East, Latin America, the Arab States and Europe, by seminars and workshops and the provision of fellowships, and by special studies and reports.

Training and research

Following a decision of the General Assembly taken in 1963, the UNITED NATIONS INSTITUTE FOR TRAINING AND RESEARCH (UNITAR) was established in 1965 as an autonomous body within the framework of the United Nations. Its purpose is to enhance the effectiveness of the United Nations in achieving the major objectives of the Organization, particularly the maintenance of international peace and security and the promotion of economic and social development. UNITAR is supported by voluntary contributions from Member States, intergovernmental organizations, private foundations and other sources.

The Institute's training programmes deal with subjects of practical value to members of permanent missions to the United Nations. They include seminars on, for example, multilateral diplomacy relating to economic co-operation for development, the establishment of a new international economic order, and the Law of the Sea. The Institute also organizes, in co-operation with the United Nations, a fellowship programme and regional refresher courses in international law. Special courses and advisory services relating to diplomatic training are also offered at the request of Member States.

UNITAR's research effort is focused on studies relating to United Nations policy and efficacy; regional co-operation for development; the future of the world economy; and the future supply of energy and natural resources.

Studies have been conducted by UNITAR on selected issues facing the main organs and other bodies of the United Nations, such as the special sessions of the General Assembly on development and international economic co-operation and the United Nations Conference on the Law of the Sea, and on the effectiveness of the various parts of the system, such as the Security Council and the Economic and Social Council. Research programmes are also under way on regional and inter-regional co-operation in the 1980s, on intra-regional migration in the Commonwealth Caribbean and on Asian regionalism and the United Nations.

UNITAR's Project on the Future, a continuous programme launched in 1975, includes work on devising a global model of economic development, a series of studies on alternative development strategies and the future of Asia and Africa, and studies on the supply aspects of energy and natural resources. A series of conferences on different aspects of energy supplies have been held since 1976. More recently, studies on the impact of energy on the global world economy have been undertaken as part of a continuing examination of North-South trade and development.

The United Nations Institute for Disarmament Research (UNIDIR), set up provisionally in 1980 within the framework of UNITAR, has issued a number of studies on aspects of arms control and disarmament. In December 1982, the General Assembly decided to establish UNIDIR as an autonomous institute of the United Nations.

The idea for the establishment of "a United Nations university, truly international in character and devoted to the Charter objectives of peace and progress", was first put forward in 1969 by the then-Secretary-General U Thant. The proposal was studied by the United Nations and UNESCO, and, in 1973, the General Assembly approved the Charter of the UNITED NATIONS UNIVERSITY (UNU), under the joint sponsorship of the United Nations and UNESCO, and accepted the offer of the Government of Japan to establish its headquarters in Tokyo. UNU began operations in Tokyo, in September 1975, as an autonomous institution within the framework of the United Nations.

Like traditional universities, UNU is concerned with the advancement of knowledge. Unlike traditional universities, however, it has no students of its own, no faculty, no campus. It is a completely new institution: an international community of scholars engaged in research, post-graduate training and the dissemination of knowledge to help solve, in the words of its charter, "pressing global problems of human survival, development and welfare". It operates through world-wide networks of academic and research institutions and individual scholars who work together on some 50 projects concerned with problems such as: Peace and Global Transformation; Food, Nutrition and Poverty; Energy Systems and Policy; Resource Policy and Management; The Development Problematique; and The Information Society—Past, Present and Future.

Created in 1963 as an autonomous United Nations activity, the UNITED NATIONS RESEARCH INSTITUTE FOR SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT (UNRISD) conducts research into problems and policies of social development, based on two themes: improving the livelihood of the world's poor and increasing their participation in development.

The Institute's research programmes, usually carried out in collaboration with national research institutions, include studies of food systems and society; the impact of socio-economic changes on women; the social effects of developmental and environmental measures; and the social and economic implications of the large-scale introduction of new varieties of food grain (the "green revolution").

The Institute, which has its headquarters in Geneva, is financed entirely by voluntary contributions.

THE UNITED NATIONS AT WORK — FOR HUMAN RIGHTS

Article 1 of the Charter proclaims that one of the purposes of the United Nations is to achieve international co-operation in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language or religion.

Universal Declaration of Human Rights

One of the first major achievements of the United Nations was the adoption by the General Assembly, on 10 December 1948, of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The Assembly proclaimed the Declaration as "a common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations", and it called upon all Member States and all peoples to promote and secure the effective recognition and observance of the rights and freedoms set forth in the Declaration.

In 1950, the General Assembly decided that 10 December of each year should be observed as Human Rights Day all over the world.

Articles 1 and 2 of the Declaration state that "all human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights" and are entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in the Declaration, "without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status".

Articles 3 to 21 of the Declaration set forth the civil and political rights to which all human beings are entitled, including:

—the right to life, liberty and security of person;

—freedom from slavery and servitude;

—freedom from torture or cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment;

—the right to recognition as a person before the law; equal protection of the law; the right to an effective judicial remedy; freedom from arbitrary arrest, detention or exile; the right to a fair trial and public hearing by an independent and impartial tribunal; the right to be presumed innocent until proved guilty;

—freedom from arbitrary interference with privacy, family, home or correspondence;

—freedom of movement; the right of asylum; the right to a nationality;

—the right to marry and to found a family; the right to own property;

—freedom of thought, conscience and religion; freedom of opinion and expression;

—the right of association and of assembly;

—the right to take part in government and the right of equal access to public service.

Articles 22 to 27 of the Declaration set forth the economic, social and cultural rights to which all human beings are entitled, including:

—the right to social security;

—the right to work;

—the right to rest and leisure;

—the right to a standard of living adequate for health and well-being;

—the right to education;

—the right to participate in the cultural life of the community.

The concluding articles—28 to 30—recognize that everyone is entitled to a social and international order in which these rights and freedoms may be fully realized, and they stress the duties and responsibilities which the individual owes to the community.

International Covenants on Human Rights

Following the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, work began on the drafting of two international covenants on human rights—one on economic, social and cultural rights and the other on civil and political rights—to put into binding legal form the rights proclaimed in the Declaration.

The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and the Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights were adopted unanimously by the General Assembly on 16 December 1966.

Although the Covenants are based on the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the rights covered are not identical. The most important right regulated in both Covenants and not contained in the Declaration is the right of peoples to self-determination, including the right of peoples freely to dispose of their natural wealth and resources.

The *International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights* entered into force on 3 January 1976. By 31 December 1982, 75 States had ratified or acceded to it.

The Covenant deals with conditions of work, trade unions, social security, protection of the family, standards of living and health, education and cultural life. It provides for the progressive full realization of those rights without discrimination. States Parties to the Covenant submit periodic reports to the Economic and Social Council, which studies them, makes general recommendations and may promote appropriate international action to assist States Parties in implementing the Covenant's provisions.

The *International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights* and the *Optional Protocol* entered into force on 23 March 1976. By 31 December 1982, 72 States had ratified or acceded to the Covenant and 28 States had ratified or acceded to the Optional Protocol.

The Covenant deals with such rights as freedom of movement, equality before the law, presumption of innocence, freedom of conscience and religion, freedom of opinion and expression, peaceful assembly, freedom of association, participation in public affairs and elections, and minority rights. It prohibits arbitrary deprivation of life; torture, cruel or degrading treatment or punishment; slavery and forced labour; arbitrary arrest or detention and arbitrary interference with privacy; war propaganda, and advocacy of racial or religious hatred that constitutes an incitement to discrimination or violence.

The Covenant established an 18-member Human Rights Committee, which considers reports submitted by States Parties on measures taken to implement the Covenant's provisions, and also considers communications alleging violations under the Optional Protocol.

The *Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights* provides for the consideration of communications from individuals who claim to be victims of violations of any rights set forth in the Covenant. Only claims against States parties to the Protocol can be considered.

Violations of human rights

Apart from the right of individual complaint under the specific procedure of the Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, thousands of letters and reports are received each year by the United Nations alleging human rights violations.

Communications containing complaints of violations of human rights are summarized and sent confidentially to the members of the Commission on Human Rights and its Sub-Commission on Prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Minorities; copies of the complaint are also sent to the Member States named. The identity of the writers is not disclosed, unless they have consented to disclosure. Any replies from the Government are forwarded to the Commission and Sub-Commission.

The Sub-Commission, if it finds the communications appear to reveal "a consistent pattern of gross and reliably attested violations" of human rights, may refer the situation to the Commission which, in turn, can decide to carry out a thorough study of the situation or to name an *ad hoc* committee to investigate it. All these procedures are confidential and are dealt with in private meetings until a report, if any, is made by the Commission to the Economic and Social Council.

The Commission on Human Rights and its Sub-Commission also consider in public session each year the question of violations of human rights and fundamental freedoms, including racial discrimination and *apartheid*, in various countries and territories. For example:

—*In southern Africa:* since 1967, an *ad hoc* working group of experts of the Commission on Human Rights has reported regularly on allegations of ill-treatment of opponents of *apartheid* and other racist policies, and on the treatment of political prisoners and detainees, in South Africa and Namibia; the Commission has also kept under continuous review the question of the adverse consequences for human rights of political, military, economic and other forms of assistance given to colonial and racist régimes in southern Africa.

—*In the occupied Arab territories, including Palestine:* since 1968, the Commission on Human Rights has been considering the question of the violation of human rights in the territories occupied by Israel as a result of the 1967 hostilities in the Middle East, including Israel's violation of the 1949 Geneva Convention relative to the Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War.

—*Other situations:* in 1975, the Commission on Human Rights established a five-member Working Group to study the human rights situation in Chile. The Group visited Chile in 1978 and submitted a report to the General Assembly and the Commission. After the completion of the Group's mandate, the Commission, in 1979, appointed a special rapporteur to continue to study the situation. The Commission has also decided to request that studies or reports be prepared by special rapporteurs or by the Secretary-General on the human rights situation in Bolivia, El Salvador, Equatorial Guinea, Guatemala, Iran and Poland. The human rights situation and especially the question of the exercise of the right to self-determination in Afghanistan and Kampuchea have also been considered by the Commission.

Specific types of violations. The Commission on Human Rights and its Sub-Commission have also studied specific phenomena of particularly serious violations of human rights. Thus, two working groups have been established—one to study slavery and the exploitation of child labour, and the other to examine the question of enforced or involuntary disappearances—and special rapporteurs have been appointed to examine the question of human rights and mass exoduses and the question of summary or arbitrary executions.

Elimination of racial discrimination

In 1963, the General Assembly adopted the *United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination,* which affirms that discrimination between human beings on the grounds of race, colour or ethnic origin is an offence to human dignity, a denial of Charter principles, a violation of the rights proclaimed in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and an obstacle to friendly and peaceful relations among peoples.

Two years later, on 21 December 1965, the Assembly adopted the *International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination.* The Convention, which entered into force on 4 January

1969, calls for an end to racial discrimination in all its forms, and it set up the Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination, composed of 18 experts, to achieve that aim. By 31 December 1982, 117 States were party to the Convention.

Racial discrimination is defined in the Convention as "any distinction, exclusion, restriction or preference based on race, colour, descent or national or ethnic origin which has the purpose or effect of nullifying or impairing the recognition, enjoyment or exercise, on an equal footing, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural or any other fields of public life".

States Parties to the Convention undertake to pursue a policy of eliminating racial discrimination and promoting understanding among races. The Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination reviews reports submitted by States Parties on the measures they have adopted to implement the Convention, and makes general recommendations.

The Committee may also consider complaints submitted by individuals or groups alleging that the Convention has been violated, provided that the State concerned has made a declaration under article 14 of the Convention recognizing the competence of the Committee to receive such complaints. As of 31 December 1982, 10 States had made that declaration.

On 30 November 1973, the General Assembly adopted the *International Convention on the Suppression and Punishment of the Crime of Apartheid.* The Convention, which entered into force on 18 July 1976, provides that international responsibility for the crime of *apartheid* shall apply to individuals, members of organizations and institutions, and representatives of a State, whether residing in the State in which the acts are perpetrated or elsewhere. Persons charged can be tried by any State Party to the Convention. A three-member Group of the Commission on Human Rights meets each year to review progress in implementing the Convention. As of 31 December 1982, 69 States were parties to the Convention.

The General Assembly also decided in 1973 to designate the ten-year period beginning on 10 December 1973 as the Decade for Action to Combat Racism and Racial Discrimination, and called on all States to work toward the goals of the Decade by: promoting human rights, especially by eradicating racism and racial discrimination; identifying and dispelling the fallacious beliefs that contribute to racism; arresting any expansion of racist policies; and putting an end to racist régimes.

The mid-point of the Decade was marked by a World Conference, held at Geneva in August 1978, which adopted a Programme of Action, including recommendations for comprehensive mandatory sanctions against the racist régimes of southern Africa, elimination by Governments of all discriminatory laws and practices, adoption of laws to punish dissemination of ideas based on racial superiority or hatred, and promotion of the rights of indigenous peoples and migrant workers.

In 1979, the Assembly adopted a programme for the remaining four years of the Decade, designed to accelerate progress towards the elimination of racial discrimination, and, in 1982, the Assembly decided that a second World Conference to Combat Racism and Racial Discrimination would be held in Geneva in August 1983.

Women's rights

The first legal instrument dealing exclusively with women's rights was the Convention on the Political Rights of Women, adopted by the General Assembly in 1952, which states that women shall be entitled to vote in all elections on equal terms with men, without any discrimination, and that women shall be eligible to hold public office and to exercise all public functions established by national law on equal terms with men.

Under the 1957 *Convention on the Nationality of Married Women*, each contracting State agrees that neither the celebration nor the dissolution of marriage between one of its nationals and an alien, nor the change of nationality of the husband during the marriage, shall automatically affect the nationality of the wife.

The 1962 *Convention on Consent to Marriage, Minimum Age for Marriage and Registration of Marriages*, and a 1965 Recommendation on the subject, aim especially at prohibiting child marriages and at safeguarding the principle of free consent to marriage.

The *Declaration on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women*, adopted by the General Assembly in 1967, united in a single instrument principles and standards relating to the rights of women in all spheres of family life and of society.

The principles and standards of the Declaration were included and expanded in the legally binding *Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women*, adopted by the General Assembly on 18 December 1979. The Convention entered into force on 3 September 1981. By 31 December 1982, 45 States had ratified or acceded to it.

The purpose of the Convention is to end the discrimination that denies or limits women's equality in political, economic, social, cultural and civic fields. By the terms of the Convention, States Parties undertake to submit periodic reports on the measures they adopt to effect its provisions. The reports will be examined by the 23-member Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, which was elected at the first meeting of the States Parties to the Convention on 16 April 1982 and will report annually to the General Assembly.

Other human rights questions

Right to self-determination. The General Assembly has stressed the importance of the universal realization of the right of peoples to self-determination and of the speedy granting of independence to colonial countries and peoples for the effective guarantee and observance of human rights, and it has reaffirmed the legitimacy of the struggle of peoples for independence, territorial integrity, national unity and liberation from colonial and foreign domination and occupation by all available means, including armed struggle.

Right to development. The Commission on Human Rights and its Sub-Commission on Prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Minorities have placed increasing emphasis on the realization of economic, social and cultural rights in connection with the guarantee of civil and political rights and in particular on the right to development as a human right. To that end, the Commission has set up a working group on the right to development, and the Sub-Commission has named a special rapporteur.

Elimination of all forms of religious intolerance. The Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Intolerance and of Discrimination Based on Religion and Belief, prepared by the Commission on Human Rights and adopted by the General Assembly in 1981, states that everyone shall have the right of freedom of thought, conscience and religion and that no one shall be subject to discrimination on the grounds of religion or other beliefs.

Human rights and scientific and technological developments. The General Assembly has called attention to the problems with respect to human rights that may arise from developments in science and technology. A series of United Nations studies have examined the impact of science and technology on human rights, particularly the impact of advances in electronics, medicine, and biology, as well as the negative consequences for human rights of environmental pollution and of the arms race.

The rights of the child. The Declaration of the Rights of the Child, adopted unanimously by the General Assembly in 1959, affirms the rights of the child to enjoy special protection and to be given opportunities and facilities to be able to develop in a healthy and normal manner. These and other rights of the child have been considered in the preparation, under way since 1978 in the Commission on Human Rights, of a draft convention on the rights of the child which would put them into binding legal form.

Protection of women and children in armed conflicts. In 1974 the General Assembly proclaimed the Declaration on the Protection of Women and Children in Emergency and Armed Conflict. The Declaration states that attacks and bombing on civilians, "especially on women and children, who are the most vulnerable members of the population", shall be prohibited and condemned and that States involved in armed conflicts shall make all efforts "to spare women and children from the ravages of war".

Protection from torture and other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment. The Declaration on the Protection of All Persons from Being Subjected to Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment, adopted by the General Assembly in 1975, states that any act of torture or other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment is an offence to human dignity and shall be condemned as a violation of human rights and fundamental freedoms. The Declaration asserts that no State may permit or tolerate such acts, nor may it invoke as a justification exceptional cricumstances such as a state of war or a threat of war, internal political instability or any other public emergency.

A draft convention against torture is being prepared in the Commission on Human Rights and a code of medical ethics has been drafted by the World Health Organization. In 1981, the General Assembly established the United Nations Voluntary Fund for Victims of Torture.

Other human rights questions of continuing concern to the United Nations include: discrimination against indigenous populations; protection of minorities; the human rights and dignity of migrant workers; and the question of conscientious objection to military service.

THE UNITED NATIONS AT WORK — FOR DECOLONIZATION

More than 70 nations whose peoples were formerly under colonial rule have joined the United Nations as sovereign independent States since the world Organization was founded in 1945. In that historic change, the United Nations has played a crucial role by encouraging the aspirations of dependent peoples and by setting goals and standards to accelerate their attainment of independence.

The decolonization efforts of the United Nations derive from the Charter principle of "equal rights and self-determination of peoples", as well as from three specific chapters in the Charter--XI, XII and XIII—devoted to the interests of dependent peoples. Since 1960, the United Nations has also been guided by the General Assembly's Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples (resolution 1514 (XV)), in which Member States proclaimed the necessity of bringing colonialism to a speedy end.

Despite the great progress made against colonialism, over three million people still live under alien rule, and the United Nations continues its efforts to help achieve self-determination and independence in the remaining dependent territories.

International Trusteeship System

Under Chapter XII of the Charter, the United Nations established the International Trusteeship System for the supervision of Trust Territories placed under it by individual agreements with the States administering them. The System applied to: (i) territories then held under Mandates established by the League of Nations after the First World War; (ii) territories detached from enemy States as a result of the Second World War; and (iii) territories voluntarily placed under the System by States responsible for their administration. The basic objective of the System was to promote the political, economic and social advancement of the Trust Territories and their progressive development towards self-government or independence.

The Trusteeship Council was established under Chapter XIII of the Charter to supervise the administration of Trust Territories and to ensure that Governments responsible for their administration took adequate steps to prepare them for the achievement of the Charter goals.

In the early years of the United Nations, 11 territories were placed under the Trusteeship System: Cameroons, Togoland and Tanganyika under United Kingdom administration; Cameroons and Togoland under French administration; Somaliland under Italian administration; Ruanda-Urundi under Belgian administration; Western Samoa under New Zealand administration; New Guinea under Australian administration; and Nauru, administered by Australia on behalf of Australia, New Zealand and the United Kingdom.

The eleventh—the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands (also known as Micronesia), comprising the former Japanese-mandated islands of the Marshalls, the Marianas (with the exception of Guam) and the Carolines—is a strategic Trust Territory administered by the United States under an agreement approved by the Security Council in 1947.

By 1981, all except the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands had either attained independence or were united with a neighbouring State to form an independent country, as follows:

Togoland under British administration	United with the Gold Coast (Colony and Protectorate), a non-self-governing territory administered by the United Kingdom, in 1957 to form Ghana
Somaliland under Italian administration	United with British Somaliland Protectorate in 1960 to form Somaliland
Togoland under French administration	Became independent as Togo in 1960
Cameroons under French administration	Became independent as Cameroon in 1960
Cameroons under British administration	The northern part of the Trust Territory joined the Federation of Nigeria on 1 June 1961 and the southern part joined the Republic of Cameroon on 1 October 1961
Tanganyika under United Kingdom administration	Became independent in 1961 (in 1974, Tanganyika and the former Protectorate of Zanzibar, which had become independent in 1963, united as a single State under the name of the United Republic of Tanzania)
Ruanda-Urundi under Belgian administration	Voted to divide into the two sovereign States of Rwanda and Burundi in 1962
Western Samoa under New Zealand administration	Became independent as Samoa in 1962
Nauru, administered by Australia on behalf of Australia, New Zealand and the United Kingdom	Became independent in 1968
New Guinea, administered by Australia	United with the non-self-governing territory of Papua, also administered by Australia, to become the independent State of Papua New Guinea in 1975.

Non-self-governing territories

The Charter of the United Nations also provided for other non-self-governing territories not brought into the Trusteeship System.

The Declaration regarding Non-Self-Governing Territories (Chapter XI of the Charter) provided that Members of the United Nations which administered territories whose peoples had not yet attained a full measure of self-government would recognize the principle that the interests of the inhabitants of those territories were paramount and accept as a sacred trust the obligation to promote to the utmost the well-being of the inhabitants.

To this end, administering Powers, in addition to ensuring the political, economic, social and educational advancement of the peoples, as well as their just treatment, would undertake to develop self-government, to take due account of the political aspirations of the peoples and to assist them in the progressive development of their free political institutions. Administering Powers were obliged to transmit regularly to the Secretary-General statistical and other information on the economic, social and educational conditions in their respective territories.

In 1946, eight Member States—Australia, Belgium, Denmark, France, the Netherlands, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the United States—enumerated the territories under their administration which they considered to be non-self-governing and undertook to send information on them to the United Nations. In all, 74 territories were enumerated, of which eight became independent in the period 1946-1959. Transmission of information was discontinued for 21 others for a variety of reasons, while several countries which attained independence in this period had never been included in the 1946 list.

Spain, which became a Member of the United Nations in 1955, began transmitting information in 1961 on the territories under its administration. In 1960, the Assembly determined that nine groups of the territories administered by Portugal, which had also become a Member of the United Nations in 1955, should be considered to be non-self-governing and requested Portugal to transmit information on those territories. The list of non-self-governing territories was subsequently expanded to include Southern Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe) and South West Africa (Namibia).

Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples

The urgent demands of dependent peoples to be free of colonial domination and the international community's perception that Charter principles were being too slowly applied led to the General Assembly's proclamation in December 1960 of the Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples (resolution 1514 (XV)).

TERRITORIES THAT HAVE ATTAINED INDEPENDENCE SINCE THE ADOPTION IN 1960 OF THE DECLARATION ON DECOLONIZATION

Independent State	*Year of Independence*	*Former Administering Authority (and former name)*
Angola	1975	Portugal
Antigua and Barbuda	1981	United Kingdom
Bahamas	1973	United Kingdom
Barbados	1966	United Kingdom
Belize	1981	United Kingdom
Botswana	1966	United Kingdom (Bechuanaland)
Cape Verde	1975	Portugal
Comoros	1975	France
Democratic Yemen	1967	United Kingdom (Aden)
Djibouti	1977	France (Territory of the Afars and the Issas)
Dominica	1978	United Kingdom
Equatorial Guinea	1968	Spain (Fernando Poo and Rio Muni)
Fiji	1970	United Kingdom
Gambia	1965	United Kingdom
Grenada	1974	United Kingdom
Guinea-Bissau	1974	Portugal
Guyana	1966	United Kingdom
Jamaica	1962	United Kingdom
Kenya	1963	United Kingdom
Kiribati	1979	United Kingdom (Gilbert Islands)
Lesotho	1966	United Kingdom (Basutoland)
Malawi	1964	United Kingdom (Nyasaland)
Malta	1964	United Kingdom
Mauritius	1968	United Kingdom
Mozambique	1975	Portugal
Oman	1971	United Kingdom
Saint Lucia	1975	United Kingdom
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	1979	United Kingdom
Sao Tome and Principe	1975	Portugal
Seychelles	1976	United Kingdom
Sierra Leone	1961	United Kingdom
Singapore	1965	United Kingdom
Solomon Islands	1978	United Kingdom
Suriname	1975	Netherlands (Dutch Guiana)
Swaziland	1968	United Kingdom
Trinidad and Tobago	1962	United Kingdom
Tuvalu	1978	United Kingdom (Ellice Islands)
Uganda	1962	United Kingdom
Vanuatu	1980	France and United Kingdom (New Hebrides)
Zambia	1964	United Kingdom (Northern Rhodesia)
Zimbabwe	1980	United Kingdom (Southern Rhodesia)

TERRITORIES WITH WHICH THE SPECIAL COMMITTEE ON DECOLONIZATION IS CONCERNED

(as at 31 December 1982)

Territory	*Administering Authority*
Africa:	
Namibia	United Nations[1]
Western Sahara	Spain[2]
Asia, the Pacific and the Indian Ocean:	
American Samoa	United States
Brunei	United Kingdom
Cocos (Keeling) Islands	Australia
East Timor	Portugal[3]
Guam	United States
Tokelau	New Zealand
Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands	United States
Atlantic Ocean, Caribbean and Mediterranean:	
Anguilla	United Kingdom
Bermuda	United Kingdom
British Virgin Islands	United Kingdom
Cayman Islands	United Kingdom
Falkland Islands (Malvinas)	United Kingdom
Gibraltar	United Kingdom
Montserrat	United Kingdom
Pitcairn	United Kingdom
St. Helena	United Kingdom
St. Kitts/Nevis	United Kingdom
Turks and Caicos Islands	United Kingdom
United States Virgin Islands	United States

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[1] In 1966, the General Assembly terminated South Africa's mandate over South West Africa and placed the Territory under the direct responsibility of the United Nations. In 1968, the Assembly declared that the Territory would henceforth be known as "Namibia", in accordance with the wishes of its people.

[2] On 26 February 1976, Spain informed the Secretary-General that as of that date it had terminated its presence in the Territory of the Sahara and deemed it necessary to place the following on record: Spain considers itself henceforth exempt from any responsibility of an international nature in connection with the administration of the Territory, "in view of the cessation of its participation in the temporary administration established for the Territory".

[3] On 20 April 1977, Portugal informed the Secretary-General that effective exercise of its sovereignty over the Territory had ceased in August 1975 and that the only information that could be transmitted would concern the first months of 1975. In subsequent years, Portugal further informed the Secretary-General that conditions prevailing in East Timor continued to prevent it from assuming its responsibilities for the administration of the Territory and that it had nothing to add to the information already published.

The Declaration states that the subjection of peoples to alien subjugation, domination and exploitation constitutes a denial of fundamental human rights, contrary to the Charter and an impediment to the promotion of world peace and co-operation, and that "immediate steps shall be taken, in Trust and Non-Self-Governing Territories or all other Territories which have not yet attained independence, to transfer all powers to the peoples of those Territories, without any conditions or reservations, in accordance with their freely expressed will and desire, without any distinction as to race, creed or colour in order to enable them to enjoy complete independence and freedom".

In 1961, the Assembly established a 17-member Special Committee—enlarged to 24 members in 1962 and to 25 in 1979—to examine on a regular basis the application of the Declaration, and to make recommendations to help speed its implementation. The Assembly subsequently assigned to the Committee the task of examining the compliance of all States with the Declaration and with other resolutions on decolonization. It also authorized the Committee to send visiting missions to the territories and to hold meetings away from Headquarters so that it could obtain first-hand information on the situation in the territories.

In 1980, the twentieth anniversary of the adoption of the Declaration, the General Assembly adopted a Plan of Action for the Full Implementation of the Declaration in which it called on Member States to intensify their efforts for the complete elimination of colonialism "in all its forms and manifestations without further delay".

In the more than two decades since the Declaration on decolonization was adopted in 1960, more than 40 former non-self-governing territories have become independent.

In its consideration of the remaining colonial territories, the General Assembly has each year reaffirmed that the continuation of colonialism in all its forms and manifestations is incompatible with the Charter, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the Declaration on decolonization and poses a serious threat to international peace and security.

The Assembly has called upon the administering Powers to take all necessary steps to enable the dependent peoples of the territories to exercise fully and without delay their inalienable right to self-determination and independence. It has also called upon the administering Powers to withdraw immediately and unconditionally their military bases and installations from colonial territories and to refrain from establishing new ones, and it has condemned the continuing activities of foreign economic and other interests which are impeding the implementation of the Declaration in colonial territories.

The Assembly has also reaffirmed its recognition of the legitimacy of the struggle of the peoples under colonial and alien domination to exercise their right to self-determination and independence by all the necessary means at their disposal.

With regard to the smaller territories, the Assembly has repeatedly reaffirmed that questions of territorial size, geographical location, size of population and limited natural resources should in no way delay the implementation of the Declaration on decolonization.

The Assembly has urged the specialized agencies and other organizations of the United Nations system to extend all necessary moral and material assistance to peoples of colonial territories and to their national liberation movements. It has also invited all States to make, or continue to make, offers of study and training facilities for inhabitants of non-self-governing territories, including scholarships and travel funds.

Namibia

Namibia—formerly known as South West Africa—is the only one of the seven African territories once held under the League of Nations Mandate System that was not placed under the Trusteeship System. The General Assembly recommended in 1946 that South Africa place South West Africa under the Trusteeship System, but South Africa refused. In fact, rather than complying with the General Assembly's recommendation, in 1949 South Africa informed the United Nations that it would no longer transmit information on the Territory on the grounds that the Mandate had lapsed with the demise of the League.

In 1950, the International Court of Justice, in an advisory opinion requested by the General Assembly, held that South Africa continued to have international obligations for the Territory to promote to the utmost the material and moral well-being and social progress of the inhabitants as a sacred trust of civilization and that the United Nations should exercise the supervisory functions of the League of Nations over the administration of the Territory.

South Africa refused to accept the Court's opinion and continued, over the ensuing 15 years, to oppose any form of United Nations supervision over the Territory's affairs.

In October 1966, the General Assembly decided to terminate the Mandate exercised by South Africa, declaring that South Africa had failed to fulfil its obligations under the Mandate and to ensure the well-being of the people of the Territory, and that it had, in fact, disavowed the Mandate. The Assembly decided that the Mandate was therefore terminated, that South Africa had no other right to administer the Territory and that thenceforth the Territory came under the direct responsibility of the United Nations.

In 1967, at a special session convened for the purpose of discussing the question of South West Africa, the Assembly established the United Nations Council for South West Africa (later renamed the United Nations Council for Namibia) to administer the Territory until independence "with the maximum possible participation of the people of the Territory". It also decided to establish the post of United Nations Commissioner for Namibia to assist the Council in carrying out its mandate.

Later the same year, in the face of South Africa's refusal to accept the Assembly's decision and to co-operate with the Council for Namibia, the Assembly recommended that the Security Council take measures to enable the Council to carry out its mandate.

In 1968 the Assembly proclaimed that, in accordance with the wishes of its people, the Territory would henceforth be known as Namibia and that the name of the Council and the title of the Commissioner should be changed accordingly.

In its first resolution on the question, in 1969, the Security Council recognized the termination of the Mandate by the Assembly, described the continued presence of South Africa in Namibia as illegal and called on South Africa to withdraw its administration from the Territory immediately. The following year, the Security Council explicitly declared for the first time that "all acts taken by the Government of South Africa on behalf of or concerning Namibia after the termination of the Mandate are illegal and invalid".

This view was upheld in 1971 by the International Court of Justice, which stated, in an advisory opinion requested by the Council, that the continued presence of South Africa in Namibia being illegal, South Africa was under obligation to withdraw its administration from Namibia immediately and thus put an end to its occupation of the Territory. South Africa, however, continued to refuse to comply with United Nations resolutions on the question of Namibia, and it continued its illegal administration of the Territory, including the imposition of *apartheid* laws, the bantustanization of the Territory and the exploitation of its resources.

To secure for the Namibians "adequate protection of the natural wealth and resources of the Territory which is rightfully theirs", the United Nations Council for Namibia enacted in September 1974 a Decree for the Protection of the Natural Resources of Namibia. Under the Decree, no person or entity may search for, take or distribute any natural resources found in Namibia without the Council's permission, and any person or entity contravening the Decree may be held liable for damages by the future government of an independent Namibia.

The Council also established, in the same year, the Institute for Namibia (located in Lusaka, Zambia, until South Africa's withdrawal from Namibia) to provide Namibians with education and training to strengthen their freedom struggle and equip them to administer a free Namibia.

In 1976, the Security Council for the first time demanded that South Africa accept elections for the Territory of Namibia as a whole under the supervision and control of the United Nations so that the people might freely determine their future. It condemned South Africa's illegal and arbitrary application of racially discriminatory and repressive laws and practices in the Territory, its military build-up in Namibia and its use of the Territory as a base for attacks on neighbouring countries.

In the same year, the General Assembly condemned South Africa for organizing so-called constitutional talks at Windhoek designed to perpetuate the colonial oppression and exploitation of Namibia. It decided that any independence talks must be between the representatives of South Africa and the South West Africa People's Organization (SWAPO), the national liberation movement of Namibia, which the Assembly recognized as the sole and authentic representative of the Namibian people. Those talks, the Assembly declared, should be held under the auspices of the United Nations for the sole purpose of discussing ways to transfer power to the people of Namibia.

The Assembly also launched a comprehensive assistance programme in support of the nationhood of Namibia, covering both the struggle for independence and the initial years of independence, and involving assistance by the specialized agencies and other organizations within the United Nations system.

The General Assembly declared, in 1977, that South Africa's decision to annex Walvis Bay—the main port and vital economic avenue of Namibia—was illegal, null and void and an act of colonial expansion. It condemned the annexation as an attempt to undermine the territorial integrity of Namibia.

At a special session on Namibia in May 1978, the Assembly adopted a Declaration on Namibia and Programme of Action in Support of Self-Determination and National Independence for Namibia. Expressing full support for the armed liberation struggle of the people under the leadership of SWAPO, it stated that any negotiated settlement must be arrived at with the agreement of SWAPO and within the framework of United Nations resolutions.

The United Nations plan for Namibian independence. In July 1978, the Security Council met to consider a proposal by the five Western members of the Council—Canada, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, the United Kingdom and the United States—for a settlement of the Namibian question. The proposal comprised a plan for free elections to a Constituent Assembly under the supervision and control of a United Nations representative assisted by a United Nations Transition Assistance Group, which would include both civilian and military components.

By its resolution 431 (1978), the Security Council took note of the Western proposal and requested the Secretary-General to appoint a Special Representative for Namibia.

In September 1978, after approving a report by the Secretary-General based on his Special Representative's findings, the Council, in resolution 435 (1978), endorsed the United Nations plan for the independence of Namibia and decided to establish, under its authority, the United Nations Transition Assistance Group (UNTAG) to assist the Special Representative to carry out his mandate—namely, to ensure the early independence of Namibia through free and fair elections under United Nations supervision and control.

The Secretary-General's report stated that the implementation of the United Nations plan would be carried out in three stages:

(1) cessation of all hostile acts by all parties;

(2) the repeal of discriminatory or restrictive laws and the release of political prisoners and voluntary return of exiles and refugees; and

(3) the holding of elections after a seven-month pre-electoral period, to be followed by the entry into force of the newly adopted Constitution and the consequent achievement of the independence of Namibia.

Since 1978, the General Assembly has continually reaffirmed that Security Council resolution 435 (1978), in which the Council endorsed the United Nations plan for the independence of Namibia, is the only basis for a peaceful settlement. It has condemned South Africa for obstructing the implementation of that resolution and other resolutions of the United Nations and for "its manoeuvres, in contravention of those resolutions, designed to consolidate its colonial and neo-colonial interests at the expense of the legitimate aspirations of the Namibian people for genuine self-determination, freedom and national independence in a united Namibia", and it has demanded that South Africa comply fully and unconditionally with resolution 435.

In furtherance of the objective of bringing to an end South Africa's illegal occupation of Namibia, the General Assembly has called upon all States to sever all relations with South Africa, and it has urged the Security Council to impose mandatory comprehensive sanctions against South Africa.

The General Assembly has also continued to authorize the United Nations Council for Namibia, as the legal Administering Authority for Namibia, to continue to mobilize international support in order to:

—press for the withdrawal of the illegal South African administration from Namibia;

—counter South Africa's policies against the Namibian people and against the United Nations;

—denounce and seek the rejection by all States of South Africa's attempts to perpetuate its presence in Namibia; and

—ensure the non-recognition of any administration or political entity installed in Namibia that is not the result of free elections held under the supervision and control of the United Nations.

106.

THE UNITED NATIONS AT WORK FOR INTERNATIONAL LAW

Article 1 of the United Nations Charter calls for the adjustment or settlement of international disputes by peaceful means in conformity with the principles of justice and international law. Among the methods of peaceful settlement, the Charter specifies, in Article 33, arbitration and judicial settlement. Under Article 13, one of the General Assembly's functions is "encouraging the progressive development of international law and its codification".

Judicial settlement of disputes

Since the inauguration of the International Court of Justice in 1946, States have submitted 50 cases to it, and 17 advisory opinions have been requested by international organizations. Fifteen of the cases submitted by States were for various reasons withdrawn or removed from the list, and in ten other cases, the Court found that it lacked jurisdiction to decide upon the merits. In the remaining cases to date, covering a wide range of topics, final judgments have been rendered in all but two, namely, Continental Shelf (Libyan Arab Jamahiriya/Malta) and Delimitation of the maritime boundary in the Gulf of Maine area (Canada/United States of America).

Some cases have involved questions of territorial rights. Thus in 1953, in a case between France and the United Kingdom, the Court found that certain Channel islets were under British sovereignty. In another case (1959), the Court upheld the claims of Belgium to an enclave situated near its frontier with the Netherlands. In a case decided in 1960, the Court found that India had not acted contrary to the obligations imposed on it by the existence of Portugal's right of passage between enclaves. In 1975, the Court found in respect of Western Sahara that there had been legal ties of allegiance between the Sultan of Morocco and some of the tribes living in Western Sahara, as well as legal ties between the Mauritanian entity and the Territory. In the Court's opinion, however, those legal ties were not of such a nature as might preclude application of the "principle of self-determination through the free and genuine expression of the will of the peoples of the Territory".

Other cases before the Court have involved the law of the sea. In 1949, the Court found Albania responsible for damage caused to British warships by mines in its territorial waters. The Court upheld the right of warships to innocent passage through international straits in time of peace, although it also found the United Kingdom had violated Albanian sovereignty by attempting to sweep the area clear of mines, after the initial damage had been caused, without Albania's permission. In a fisheries dispute between the United Kingdom and Norway, the Court held in 1951 that the method employed by Norway in delimiting its territorial waters was not contrary to international law. In 1969, at the request of Denmark, the Netherlands and the Federal Republic of Germany, the Court indicated the principles and rules of international law applicable to the delimitation of the areas of the North Sea continental shelf appertaining to each of them. In 1974, the Court found that Iceland was not entitled unilaterally to exclude the fishing vessels of the United Kingdom and the Federal Republic of Germany from areas between fishery limits agreed in 1961 and the 50-mile limit proclaimed by Iceland in 1972. In 1982, at the request of Tunisia and the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, the Court indicated the principles and rules of international law applicable to the delimitation of the areas of the Mediterranean continental shelf appertaining to each of them respectively.

In 1981, Canada and the United States submitted to a chamber of the Court a question as to the course of the maritime boundary dividing the continental shelf and fisheries zones of the two countries in the Gulf of Maine area. In 1982, a dispute relating to the delimitation of the continental shelf between the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya and Malta was referred to the Court by means of a special agreement specifically concluded for this purpose. Final judgments in these two cases have not been rendered.

Some other cases have involved questions of treaty interpretation in such matters as rights of asylum in Latin America (Colombia v. Peru, 1950) and the rights of United States nationals in Morocco (France v. United States, 1951). In 1955, the Court found that the claim of a naturalized Liechtenstein citizen who had no real link with that country could not be espoused by Liechtenstein against Guatemala. In 1970, the Court held that Belgium had no legal capacity to protect the interests of Belgian shareholders in a Canadian company which had been the subject of certain measures in Spain.

In cases concerning the discharge of duties of the mandatory Power for the Territory of South West Africa (Namibia), the Court found in 1966 that Ethiopia and Liberia had not established any legal rights or interests in the claim they had brought against South Africa. Four of the advisory opinions given by the Court have also concerned Namibia. Three of these were requested by the General Assembly. In the first, the Court expressed the opinion in 1950 that South Africa continued to have international obligations under the Mandate despite the dissolution of the League of Nations. In 1955, the Court stated over South African objections that the General Assembly was correct in treating decisions concerning South West Africa as "important questions" requiring a two-thirds vote. The following year, the Court stated that the oral hearings of petitioners by the Committee on South West Africa were admissible as a necessary means to enable the United Nations to perform its supervisory duties effectively. The fourth opinion, requested by the Security Council, was given in 1971, when the Court stated that the continued presence of South Africa in Namibia was illegal and that South Africa was under obligation to withdraw its administration and put an end to its occupation of the Territory.

Among other opinions requested by the General Assembly, one was given in 1949 on a question put after the assassination of the United Nations mediator in Palestine: the Court found that the United Nations had the capacity to maintain a claim against a State for injuries to an agent of the Organization. Another concerned the refusal of certain States to contribute to the expenses of peace-keeping operations in the Middle East and the Congo. The Court held in 1962 that the expenses in question should be borne by all Member States in accordance with the Charter. In 1980, in an advisory opinion requested by the World Health Organization (WHO), the Court indicated the principles and rules applicable to the question under what conditions and in accordance with what modalities a transfer of the WHO Regional Office for the Eastern Mediterranean might be effected, should such transfer be decided.

In 1973, Australia and New Zealand each brought a case against France concerning the deposit of radioactive fall-out from nuclear tests conducted by France in the atmosphere above the Pacific atoll of Mururoa. The Court first indicated that, pending a final decision, France should avoid such tests and later (December 1974) delivered judgments finding, on the basis of statements made by French authorities, that France had undertaken to refrain from atmospheric nuclear testing after 1974, so that the claims of the applicant States no longer had any object and the Court was no longer called upon to give decisions in the cases.

In the case brought by the United States against Iran concerning the seizure of its embassy in Tehran and the detention of its diplomatic and consular staff, the Court first indicated provisionally (December 1979) that the embassy should be immediately given back and the detained staff released, and subsequently (May 1980) found on the merits that Iran had violated its obligations to the United States, must release the hostages, hand back the embassy and make reparation. However, before the Court had occasion to fix the amount of the reparation, the case was withdrawn following the agreement reached between the two States.

Progressive development of international law and its codification

The International Law Commission was established by the General Assembly in 1947 to promote the progressive development of international law and its codification. The Commission, which meets annually, is composed of 34 members who are elected by the General Assembly for five-year terms and who serve in their individual capacity, not as representatives of their Governments.

Most of the Commission's work consists in the preparation of drafts on topics of international law, some chosen by the Commission and others referred to it by the General Assembly or the Economic and Social Council. When the Commission completes draft articles on a particular topic, the General Assembly usually convenes an international conference of plenipotentiaries to incorporate the draft articles into a convention which is then opened to States to become Parties.

Thus, for example:

—in 1958, a United Nations conference approved four Conventions on the law of the sea: the Convention on the High Seas, the Convention on the Territorial Sea and Contiguous Zone, the Convention on Fishing and Conservation of the Living Resources of the High Seas and the Convention on the Continental Shelf;

—in 1961, a conference approved the Convention on the Reduction of Statelessness;

—two conferences, held in Vienna in 1961 and 1963, respectively, approved the Vienna Convention on Diplomatic Relations and the Vienna Convention on Consular Relations;

—a conference which met in Vienna in 1968 and again in 1969 approved a Convention on the Law of Treaties;

—draft articles, prepared by the Commission, on Special Missions and on the Prevention and Punishment of Crimes against Internationally Protected Persons, including Diplomatic Agents, were not referred to an international conference but were considered directly by the General Assembly, which adopted Conventions on both subjects in 1969 and 1973, respectively;

—in 1975, an international conference adopted the Vienna Convention on the Representation of States in Their Relations with Organizations of a Universal Character;

—another conference convened by the General Assembly, which met in Vienna in April 1977 and again in August 1978, completed and adopted the Vienna Convention on Succession of States in Respect of Treaties.

In 1978, when the Commission approved its final draft articles on most-favoured-nation clauses, the Assembly decided to transmit them to Governments for their comments.

In 1981, the General Assembly decided to convene a United Nations Conference on Succession of States in respect of State Property, Archives and Debts to consider the Commission's draft articles and to conclude a convention on the topic. The Conference was scheduled to be held in Vienna in 1983.

In 1982, the General Assembly decided that an international convention should be concluded on the basis of the draft articles adopted by the Commission on the law of treaties between States and international organizations or between international organizations.

The current work of the Commission includes the codification and progressive development of: the law of State responsibility, the law of the non-navigational uses of international watercourses; the status of the diplomatic courier and the diplomatic bag not accompanied by diplomatic courier; jurisdictional immunities of States and their property; international liability for injurious consequences arising out of acts not prohibited by international law; relations between States and international organizations (second part of the topic) and the draft code of offences against the peace and security of mankind.

International trade law

In response to the need for the United Nations to play a more active role in removing or reducing legal obstacles to the flow of international trade, the General Assembly established the United Nations Commission on International Trade Law (UNCITRAL) in 1966 to promote the progressive harmonization and unification of the law of international trade. The 36-nation Commission, whose members represent the various geographical regions and the principal economic and legal systems of the world, reports annually to the General Assembly and also submits its report to UNCTAD for comments.

The Commission's functions include co-ordination of the work of international organizations active in the field of international trade law and promotion of wider participation in existing international conventions and the preparation of new conventions and other instruments relating to international trade law. The Commission also offers training and assistance in international trade law, taking into account the special needs of the developing countries.

The Commission's attention has been principally directed to the study and preparation of uniform rules in the following fields: international sale of goods, international payments, international commercial arbitration, and international legislation on shipping.

The Convention on the Limitation Period in the International Sale of Goods, the first to be prepared by the Commission, was adopted in June 1974 by a United Nations conference of plenipotentiaries convened by the General Assembly. A similar international conference adopted the United Nations Convention on the Carriage of Goods by Sea (known as the "Hamburg Rules") in 1978; the Commission had approved the draft text in 1967. And a third international conference, held in 1980, adopted the United Nations Convention on Contracts for the International Sale of Goods, referred to as the "Vienna Sales Convention".

A working group of the Commission has adopted two draft conventions—on international bills of exchange and international promissory notes, and on international cheques—for consideration by the Commission. Another working group, on the new international economic order, has recommended for the Commission's consideration legal issues involving developing countries.

Other legal questions

Among other questions on which conventions have been adopted by the General Assembly or are in preparation are those concerning the taking of hostages and the use of mercenaries.

The International Convention on the Taking of Hostages, which was adopted by the General Assembly in 1979, had been drafted by a special committee set up by the Assembly in 1976. The Convention obliges contracting States to either prosecute or extradite any person committing an act of hostage-taking, and to take measures to prevent hostage-taking.

In 1980, the General Assembly established an *ad hoc* committee to draft an international convention against the recruitment, use, financing and training of mercenaries.

INTERGOVERNMENTAL AGENCIES RELATED TO THE UNITED NATIONS

The intergovernmental agencies related to the United Nations by special agreements are separate, autonomous organizations which work with the United Nations and each other through the co-ordinating machinery of the Economic and Social Council.

Fifteen of the agencies are known as "specialized agencies", a term used in the United Nations Charter. They report annually to the Economic and Social Council. They are the following:

—International Labour Organisation (ILO),
—Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO),
—United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO),
—World Health Organization (WHO),
—World Bank/International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD),
—International Development Association (IDA),
—International Finance Corporation (IFC),
—International Monetary Fund (IMF),
—International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO),
—Universal Postal Union (UPU),
—International Telecommunication Union (ITU),
—World Meteorological Organization (WMO),
—International Maritime Organization (IMO),
—World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO),
—International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD).

The International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), established in 1957 "under the aegis of the United Nations", reports annually to the General Assembly and, as appropriate, to the Security Council and the Economic and Social Council.

The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) is a multilateral agreement which lays down rules for international trade.

International Atomic Energy Agency

The Statute of the INTERNATIONAL ATOMIC ENERGY AGENCY (IAEA) was approved on 26 October 1956 at an international conference held at United Nations Headquarters, and the Agency came into existence in Vienna on 29 July 1957. On 14 November 1957, the General

Assembly approved an agreement concerning IAEA's relationship with the United Nations.

Aims and activities. In accordance with its Statute, the IAEA's two main objectives are to seek to accelerate and enlarge the contribution of atomic energy to peace, health and prosperity throughout the world, and to ensure, so far as it is able, that assistance provided by it or at its request or under its supervision or control is not used in such a way as to further any military purpose.

The IAEA fosters and guides the development of peaceful uses of atomic energy, establishes standards for nuclear safety and environmental protection, aids member countries through technical co-operation and fosters the exchange of scientific and technical information on nuclear energy.

One of the Agency's main functions is to apply safeguards to ensure that nuclear materials and equipment intended for peaceful use are not diverted to military purposes. The IAEA safeguards system is primarily based on nuclear material accountancy, verified on the spot by IAEA inspectors. Non-nuclear-weapon States which are parties to the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons *(see page 37)* are required to conclude safeguards agreements with the IAEA covering nuclear materials in their peaceful nuclear activities.

To promote the development of the peaceful uses of nuclear energy, the IAEA advises and assists Governments, at their request, on atomic energy programmes. The main objective of its technical assistance programme is to promote the transfer of skills and knowledge so that recipient countries can carry out their atomic energy programmes more efficiently and safely. It provides advisers, equipment and training to member States, the majority of whom are developing countries.

The IAEA formulates basic safety standards for radiation protection and issues regulations and codes of practice on specific types of operations, including the safe transport of radioactive materials.

Information on virtually every aspect of nuclear science and technology is collected and disseminated by the IAEA through its International Nuclear Information System in Vienna. With UNESCO, it operates the International Centre for Theoretical Physics in Trieste, Italy, and maintains three laboratories for studies in basic nuclear physics applications and practical uses. It works with FAO in research on atomic energy in food and agriculture and with WHO on radiation in medicine and biology.

Administration. The IAEA's policies and programmes are directed by the General Conference, composed of all IAEA member States, which meets annually, and by a 34-member Board of Governors.

Director General: Hans Blix.

Headquarters: Vienna International Centre, P.O. Box 100, A-1400 Vienna, Austria.

International Labour Organisation

The INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANISATION (ILO) was established in 1919, under the Treaty of Versailles, as an autonomous institution associated with the League of Nations. An agreement establishing the relationship between the ILO and the United Nations was approved on 14 December 1946, and it became the first specialized agency associated with the United Nations.

Aims and activities. The ILO works to promote social justice for working people everywhere. It formulates international policies and programmes to help improve working and living conditions; creates international labour standards to serve as guidelines for national authorities in putting these policies into action; carries out an extensive programme of technical co-operation to help Governments in making these policies effective in practice; and engages in training, education and research to help advance these efforts.

The ILO is unique among world organizations in that workers' and employers' representatives have an equal voice with those of Governments in formulating its policies. The International Labour Conference is composed of delegates from each member country—two from the government and one each representing workers and employers. One of its most important functions is the adoption of conventions and recommendations which set international labour standards in such areas as freedom of association, wages, hours and conditions of work, workmen's compensation, social insurance, vacation with pay, industrial safety, employment services, and labour inspection.

Conventions create binding obligations—for member States who ratify them—to put their provisions into effect, while recommendations provide guidance for national policy, legislation and practice. Since the ILO was founded, more than 300 conventions and recommendations have been adopted. The ILO monitors the application of conventions by ratifying States and has a special procedure for investigating complaints of infringements of trade union rights.

Through the organization's programme of technical co-operation, ILO experts assist member countries in such fields as vocational training, management techniques, manpower planning, employment policies, occupational safety and health, social security systems, co-operatives and small-scale handicraft industries.

Opportunities for study and training are offered at the ILO's International Institute for Labour Studies in Geneva and the International Centre for Advanced Technical and Vocational Training in Turin, Italy.

Administration. Between the annual sessions of the International Labour Conference, in which all members are represented, the work of the ILO is guided by the Governing Body, comprising 28 government members and 14 worker and 14 employer members.

Director-General: Francis Blanchard.

Headquarters: 4, route des Morillons, CH-1211 Geneva 22, Switzerland.

Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations

The FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANIZATION OF THE UNITED NATIONS (FAO) was founded at a conference in Quebec on 16 October 1945.

Aims and activities. The aims of FAO are to raise levels of nutrition and standards of living; to improve the production, processing, marketing and distribution of all food and agricultural products from farms, forests and fisheries; to promote rural development and improve the living conditions of rural populations; and, by these means, to eliminate hunger.

In carrying out these aims, FAO promotes investment in agriculture, better soil and water management, improved yields of crops and livestock, and the transfer of technology to, and the development of agricultural research in, developing countries. It promotes the conservation of natural resources, particularly plant genetic resources, and the rational use of fertilizers and pesticides; combats animal diseases; promotes the development of marine and inland fisheries and of new and renewable sources of energy, in particular rural energy; and encourages the rational use of forest resources. Technical assistance is provided in all these fields and in others such as nutrition, agricultural engineering, agrarian reform, development communications, remote sensing for natural resources, and the prevention of food losses.

Special FAO programmes help countries prepare for, and provide relief in the event of, emergency food situations. Its Global Information and Early Warning System provides current information on the world food situation and identifies countries threatened by shortages, to guide potential donors. Its Food Security Assistance Scheme is designed to assist developing countries set up national food reserves. The programme for the prevention of food losses, established by FAO in 1977, aims at achieving a 10-year target of 50 per cent reduction in post-harvest losses. Other programmes aim at improving seed production and distribution in developing countries and assisting countries in the supply and use of fertilizers. There is also a programme to control African animal trypanosomiasis, a disease severely limiting survival of livestock in some 7 million square kilometres of Africa.

FAO acts as the lead agency for rural development in the United Nations system. It gives individuals and organizations the opportunity to participate in rural development through the Freedom from Hunger/Action for Development programme. With the United Nations, FAO sponsors the World Food Programme, which uses food commodities, cash and services contributed by United Nations Member States to back programmes of social and economic development, as well as for relief in emergency situations.

Administration. The General Conference of FAO, composed of all member States, meets every other year to determine the policy and approve the budget and work programme of FAO. The Council, consisting of 49 member nations elected by the Conference, serves as the governing body of FAO between sessions of the Conference.

Director-General: Edouard Saouma.

Headquarters: Via delle Terme di Caracalla, 00100 Rome, Italy.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

The constitution of the UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATION (UNESCO) was prepared by a conference convened in London in 1945. UNESCO came into being on 4 November 1946, when 20 signatories to its constitution had deposited their instruments of acceptance with the United Kingdom.

Aims and activities. UNESCO's primary aim is to contribute to peace and security in the world by promoting collaboration among nations through education, science, culture and communication.

To realize these aims, UNESCO expands and guides education so as to enable the people of every country to take their own development in hand more effectively; helps in establishing the scientific and technological foundations through which every country can make better use of its resources; encourages national cultural values and the preservation of cultural heritage so as to derive the maximum advantage from modernization without the loss of cultural identity and diversity; develops commmunication for a free flow and a wider and better balanced dissemination of information; and promotes the social sciences as instruments for the realization of human rights, justice and peace.

In education, its major activity, UNESCO combines literacy programmes with a drive to make primary education universal and eliminate illiteracy's root causes. It also helps train teachers, educational planners and administrators and encourages local building and equipping of schools.

In the natural sciences, UNESCO's programmes include Man and the Biosphere; the programme of the Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission; and the International Hydrological and International Geological Correlation programmes. In addition, through education and training programmes, UNESCO helps to correct the imbalance in scientific and technological manpower, 90 per cent of which is now concentrated in the industrialized countries.

In the social sciences, UNESCO has produced studies on such subjects as tensions leading to war, racism, the socio-economic factors of development, and the relationship between man and his environment.

UNESCO's cultural activities are concentrated chiefly on the stimulation of artistic creativity, the study and development of cultures, and the conservation of the world's inheritance of books, works of art and monuments, as well as the preservation of cultural identities and oral traditions.

In the field of communication, UNESCO surveys communication needs and assists countries to set up news agencies. Efforts are being made to broaden international co-operation to bring about a new information order, through studies of the role of the media in establishing a new economic order, co-operation with regional news agencies, and symposia to bring news agencies from developing countries and the media of industrialized countries together with the aim of increasing the flow of third world news.

Administration. The General Conference of UNESCO, composed of representatives of all member countries, meets biennially to decide the policy, programme and budget of the organization. The Executive Board, consisting of 45 members elected by the General Conference, meets at least three times a year and is responsible for supervising the programme adopted by the Conference.

Director-General: Amadou-Mahtar M'Bow.

Headquarters: 7, Place de Fontenoy, 75007 Paris, France.

World Health Organization

The WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION (WHO) came into being on 7 April 1948, when 26 United Nations Member States had ratified its constitution.

Aims and activities. WHO's objective, set out in its constitution, is the attainment by all peoples of the highest possible level of health. Since 1977, when the World Health Assembly set "Health for all by the year 2000" as WHO's overriding priority, a global strategy has been worked out to reach this goal. The strategy, which requires the combined efforts of Governments and people for its implementation, is based on the primary health care approach, involving eight essential elements: education concerning prevailing health problems; proper food supply and nutrition; safe water and sanitation; maternal and child health, including family planning; immunization against major infectious diseases; prevention and control of local diseases; appropriate treatment of common diseases and injuries; and provision of essential drugs.

WHO helps countries reinforce their health systems by building up infrastructure, particularly health manpower and including services for the individual, family and community, health institutions, systems for referring complex problems to more specialized services, and the provision of essential drugs and other supplies and equipment.

WHO also promotes the research required to develop appropriate technologies relating to all aspects of health, including nutrition, maternal and child care, environmental safety, mental health, control of specific diseases, accident prevention, medical care and rehabilitation.

Provision of safe drinking water and adequate waste disposal for all are the objectives of the International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade proclaimed by the United Nations in 1981, in which WHO plays a major role.

WHO is leading a world-wide campaign to provide effective immunization for all children by 1990 to prevent the six major communicable diseases of childhood—diphtheria, measles, poliomyelitis, tetanus, tuberculosis and whooping cough. It is also active in international efforts to combat the diarrhoeal diseases, killers of infants and young children.

Global research programmes administered by WHO include a special programme, in collaboration with UNDP and the World Bank, of research and training in tropical diseases (malaria, leprosy, schistosomiasis, filariasis, trypanosomiasis and leishmaniasis). Working in co-operation with the World Bank, FAO, UNDP and several donor countries, WHO is engaged in a massive programme to combat onchocerciasis, or river blindness, which affects seven West African countries.

Administration. The governing body of WHO is the World Health Assembly, on which all members are represented. It meets annually to review the organization's work and decide on policy, programme and budget. The Executive Board has 30 members, designated by as many countries; it acts as the executive arm of the Assembly.

Director-General: Dr. Halfdan Mahler.

Headquarters: 20, avenue Appia, 1211 Geneva 27, Switzerland.

World Bank

The World Bank is a group of three institutions: the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, which was established on 27 December 1945, when 28 countries had signed the Articles of Agreement that had been drawn up at a United Nations monetary and financial conference of 44 Governments, held in 1944 at Bretton Woods, New Hampshire; the International Finance Corporation, established in 1956; and the International Development Association, established in 1960.

The common objective of all three institutions is to help raise standards of living in developing countries by channelling financial resources to those countries from developed countries.

INTERNATIONAL BANK FOR RECONSTRUCTION AND DEVELOPMENT (IBRD)

Aims and activities. The IBRD was established to assist in the reconstruction and development of territories of members by facilitating the investment of capital for productive purposes; to promote private foreign investment and, when private capital is not readily available on reasonable terms, to supplement private investment by providing finance for productive purposes; and to promote the long-range balanced growth of international trade and the maintenance of equilibrium in balances of payments by encouraging international investment for the development of productive resources of members.

The Bank's charter spells out the basic rules that govern its operations: it must lend only for productive purposes (such as agriculture and rural development, energy, education, health, family planning and nutrition, roads and railways, telecommunications, urban ports and power facilities) and must pay due regard to the prospects for repayment; each loan must be guaranteed by the Government concerned and, except in special circumstances, must be for specific projects; the Bank must assure itself that the necessary funds are unavailable from other sources on reasonable terms; the use of loans cannot be restricted to purchases in any particular member country or countries; and the Bank's decisions to lend must be based only on economic considerations.

The Bank, whose capital is subscribed by its member countries, finances its lending operations primarily from its own borrowings in the world markets, as well as from retained earnings and the flow of repayments on its loans. Loans may be made to member countries, to their political subdivisions or to private business enterprises in their territories. In addition to granting loans, the Bank provides a wide range of technical assistance services.

Administration. All powers of the Bank are vested in the Board of Governors, composed of one Governor and one alternate appointed by each member country. The Board normally meets once a year. There are 21 Executive Directors—five appointed by members having the largest number of shares and 16 elected by Governors of the remaining members. The Board of Governors delegates to the Executive Directors authority to exercise all powers of the Bank, except those reserved to the Board by the Articles of Agreement. The President of the Bank is selected by the Board of Governors, of which he is *ex officio* Chairman.

INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT ASSOCIATION (IDA)

Aims and activities. The need for lending to many poor countries on much easier terms than the Bank alone could give became apparent in the 1950s, and the IDA was therefore established in 1960, as an affiliate of the Bank, to help meet this need.

The bulk of IDA's resources comes from three sources: transfers from the Bank's net earnings; capital subscribed in convertible currencies by the members of IDA; and contributions from IDA's richer members.

In order to borrow from IDA, a country must meet four criteria: it must be very poor (the "poverty ceiling" was $730 per capita GNP in 1980); it must have sufficient economic, financial and political stability to warrant long-term development lending; it must have an unusually difficult balance-of-payments problem and little prospect of earning enough foreign exchange to justify borrowing all it needs on conventional terms; and it must have a genuine commitment to development as reflected in its policies.

Nearly all IDA "credits", as they are called to distinguish them from Bank "loans", have been for a period of 50 years, without interest, except for a small charge to cover administrative costs. Repayment of principal does not begin until after a 10-year grace period.

Administration. The World Bank is responsible for the administration of IDA, and the Bank's Board of Governors, Executive Directors and President serve *ex officio* in IDA.

INTERNATIONAL FINANCE CORPORATION (IFC)

Aims and activities. The IFC, while closely associated with the World Bank, is a separate legal entity and its funds are distinct from those of the Bank. IFC's aims are to assist in financing private enterprises which could contribute to development by making investments, without guarantee of repayment by the member Government concerned; to bring together investment opportunities, domestic and foreign capital, and experienced management; and to stimulate the flow of private capital, domestic and foreign, into productive investment in member countries.

IFC's investments have been primarily in manufacturing but have included mining, tourism, utilities and projects related to agriculture. Its resources come mainly from subscriptions by its member countries and from accumulated earnings.

Administration. The Board of Governors, in which all powers of IFC are vested, consists of the Governors and alternates of the World Bank who represent countries which are also members of IFC. The Board of Directors, composed *ex officio* of the Executive Directors of the World Bank who represent countries which are also members of the IFC, supervises the general operations of the IFC. The President of the World Bank serves *ex officio* as Chairman of the Board of Directors of IFC.

President of the World Bank: A. W. Clausen.

Headquarters: 1818 H Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20433, United States.

International Monetary Fund

The Articles of Agreement of the INTERNATIONAL MONETARY FUND (IMF) were drawn up, along with those of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, at the 1944 Bretton Woods conference, and the Fund came into being on 27 December 1945, when representatives of countries whose quotas amounted to 80 per cent of the Fund's resources had deposited their ratifications of the Agreement. The Articles have been twice amended, in 1969 and in 1978.

Aims and activities. The Fund seeks to promote international monetary co-operation and to facilitate the expansion of trade, and thus to contribute to increased employment and improved economic conditions in all member countries.

To achieve its purposes, the Fund makes financing available to members in balance-of-payments difficulties and provides them with technical assistance to improve their economic management. Member countries undertake to collaborate with the Fund and with each other to assure orderly exchange arrangements and a stable system of exchange rates, together with a multilateral system of payments that is free from restrictions and thus promotes balance in the payments among countries.

The Fund maintains a pool of financial resources that it makes available to member countries—temporarily and subject to conditions—to enable them to carry out programmes to remedy their payments deficits. Members make repayments to the Fund so that its resources are used on a revolving basis and are continuously available to countries facing payments difficulties.

The Fund's special drawing rights (SDRs) are an international currency, created by the Fund in 1969 under the first amendment to the Articles of Agreement. They can be used by its members for making international payments—for example, to obtain currency in a spot transaction, for the settlement of a financial obligation, as a loan or as security for a loan.

Administration. Each member country is represented by a governor and an alternate governor on the Board of Governors, the Fund's highest authority, which meets annually. A member country's voting power primarily reflects its contribution to the Fund's financial resources, which, in turn, is related to its relative size in the world economy. The daily business of the Fund is conducted by an Executive Board of 21 Executive Directors, chaired by the Managing Director.

Managing Director: J. de Larosière.

Headquarters: 700 19th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20431, United States.

International Civil Aviation Organization

The INTERNATIONAL CIVIL AVIATION ORGANIZATION (ICAO) was established on 4 April 1947, after 26 States had ratified the Convention on International Civil Aviation which had been drawn up at the Chicago International Civil Aviation Conference in 1944.

Aims and activities. ICAO's objectives are to ensure the safe and orderly growth of international civil aviation throughout the world; encourage the arts of aircraft design and operation for peaceful purposes and the development of airways, airports and air navigation facilities for international civil aviation; and meet the needs of the peoples of the world for safe, regular, efficient and economical air transport.

ICAO has adopted, as annexes to the Chicago Convention, international standards and recommended practices for the safety, regularity and efficiency of air navigation and for the facilitation of air transport. These standards and recommended practices govern the performance of airline pilots, flight crews, air traffic controllers and ground maintenance crews and also specify the design and performance of aircraft and much of its equipment. The rules of the air—both visual flight

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rules and instrument flight rules—by which pilots fly are formulated by ICAO, as are the aeronautical charts used for navigation throughout the world. Aircraft telecommunications systems—radio frequencies and procedures—are also ICAO's responsibility.

ICAO works to facilitate international air transport through the reduction of procedural formalities—involving customs, immigration, public health—in the path of free and unimpeded passage of an aircraft, its passengers, crews, baggage, cargo and mail across international boundaries. It also meets requests for civil aviation assistance from developing countries in establishing or improving air transport systems and in training aviation personnel.

Administration. The ICAO Assembly, composed of delegates from all member States, meets at least once every three years. It decides ICAO policy and examines any matters not specifically referred to the Council.

The Council, composed of representatives of 33 nations elected by the Assembly, is the executive body of ICAO. It carries out Assembly directives and administers the finances of ICAO. It adopts standards for, and compiles, examines and publishes information on, international air navigation, and may act, if requested by the member States concerned, as a tribunal for the settlement of any dispute relating to international civil aviation.

President of the Council: Dr. Assad Kotaite.

Secretary-General: Yves Lambert.

Headquarters: 1000 Sherbrooke Street West, Montreal, Quebec H3A 2R2, Canada.

Universal Postal Union

The UNIVERSAL POSTAL UNION (UPU) was established on 9 October 1874 by the Berne Treaty, which was approved by 22 nations at Berne, Switzerland, and came into force on 1 July 1875. UPU became a specialized agency of the United Nations under the terms of an agreement which became effective on 1 July 1948.

Aims and activities. UPU forms a single postal territory of countries for the reciprocal exchange of letter-post items. Its objectives are to secure the organization and improvement of the postal services; to take part in postal technical assistance sought by the member countries of the Union; and to promote international collaboration in postal matters. Every member State of the UPU agrees to transmit the mail of all other members by the best means used for its own mail.

UPU fixes the rates, the maximum and minimum weight and size limits and the conditions of acceptance of letter-post items, which include letters (including aerogrammes), postcards, printed matter, literature in raised relief for the blind and small packets. It also prescribes the methods for calculating and collecting transit charges (for letter-post items passing through the territories of one or more countries) and terminal dues. In addition, it establishes regulations for registered and air mail and for objects of transport which require special precautions, such as infectious and radioactive substances.

UPU's technical co-operation projects include planning, organization, management, operations, training and financial services. The aid provided, primarily to meet the needs of developing countries, consists in recruiting and sending experts, UPU consultants or volunteers, granting vocational training or further training fellowships for individual or group courses, and supplying equipment and training or demonstration aids.

Administration. The Universal Postal Congress, composed of representatives of all member countries, is the supreme authority of UPU. It meets every five years to review the Universal Postal Convention and its subsidiary agreements on the basis of proposals submitted by member countries.

The Executive Council, composed of 40 members elected by the Congress with due regard for equitable geographical distribution, meets annually to ensure the continuity of the work of the Union between congresses.

The Consultative Council for Postal Studies, composed of 35 members elected by the Congress, carries out studies and gives opinions on technical, operational and economic questions concerning the postal service, and also examines technical co-operation problems arising in the new and developing countries.

Director-General: Mohamed Ibrahim Sobhi.

Headquarters: Weltpostrasse 4, Berne, Switzerland.

International Telecommunication Union

The INTERNATIONAL TELECOMMUNICATION UNION (ITU) was founded at Paris in 1865 as the International Telegraph Union. Its name was changed to the International Telecommunication Union in 1934, following the adoption of the International Telecommunication Convention at Madrid in 1932. The ITU was reorganized in 1947 and became the United Nations specialized agency for telecommunications.

Aims and activities. The purposes of ITU are to maintain and extend international co-operation for the improvement and rational use of telecommunications of all kinds, and to promote the development of technical facilities and their most efficient operation with a view to improving the efficiency of telecommunication services, increasing their usefulness and making them generally available to the public.

To this end, ITU effects the allocation of the radio frequency spectrum and registration of radio frequency assignments in order to avoid harmful interference between radio stations of different countries and to improve the use made of the radio frequency spectrum, and also effects an orderly recording of the positions assigned by countries to geostationary satellites. ITU co-ordinates efforts aimed at harmonizing the development of telecommunications facilities, notably those using space techniques, so as to take full advantage of their possibilities. It fosters collaboration among its members aimed at establishing rates at levels as low as possible consistent with an efficient service.

ITU also fosters the creation and improvement of telecommunication equipment and networks in developing countries; promotes the adoption of measures for ensuring the safety of life through the co-operation of telecommunication services; and undertakes studies, makes regulations and formulates recommendations and opinions, and collects and publishes information concerning telecommunications matters.

Administration. The supreme organ of ITU is the Plenipotentiary Conference, which meets normally every five years and is responsible for laying down ITU's basic policy. In addition, administrative conferences are convened to consider specific telecommunications matters, either worldwide or regional.

The Administrative Council, composed of 41 members of the Union elected by the Plenipotentiary Conference with due regard for equitable geographical representation, meets annually; it co-ordinates the work of the four permanent organs at ITU headquarters: the General Secretariat; the International Frequency Registration Board; and two international consultative committees—the International Radio Consultative Committee and the International Telegraph and Telephone Consultative Committee.

Secretary-General: Richard E. Butler

Headquarters: Place des Nations, 1211 Geneva 20, Switzerland.

World Meteorological Organization

The WORLD METEOROLOGICAL ORGANIZATION (WMO) had its origin in the International Meteorological Organization, established in 1878. In 1939, IMO decided to create an intergovernmental organization to be known as the World Meteorological Organization. WMO's Convention was drawn up at a conference in Washington, D.C. in 1947 and came into force on 23 March 1950.

Aims and activities. WMO's aims are to aid in the establishment of networks of stations and centres to provide meteorological and hydrological observations and services; to promote the establishment and maintenance of systems for the rapid exchange of meteorological and related information; to promote standardization of meteorological and related observations and ensure the uniform publication of observations and statistics; to further the application of meteorology to aviation, shipping, water problems, agriculture and other activities; to promote activities in operational hydrology; and to further close co-operation between meteorological and hydrological services.

WMO has implemented the establishment of the "World Weather Watch", using surface-based observations, meteorological satellites and a system of world and regional meteorological centres operated by national weather services of members. In recent years, with atmospheric and oceanic data obtained from space fast becoming the basis of extended-range weather forecasts for the entire globe, WMO has given high priority to space-based observational systems.

WMO's World Climate Programme, the outcome of the World Climate Conference held in Geneva in 1979, seeks to improve knowledge of the natural variability of climate and the effects of climatic changes due either to natural causes or to human activities.

Administration. The supreme body of WMO is the World Meteorological Congress, in which all members are represented by the heads of their meteorological services. It meets every four years to determine general policies for WMO. The Executive Committee, composed of 29 directors of national meteorological or hydrological services serving in an individual capacity, meets at least once a year to supervise the programmes approved by the Congress.

There are six regional meteorological associations—for Africa, Asia, South America, North and Central America, Europe and the south-west Pacific—each composed of members whose task is to co-ordinate meteorological and related activites within their respective regions. Eight technical commissions, composed of experts designated by members of WMO, are responsible for studying aeronautical, agricultural and marine meteorology, atmospheric sciences, basic systems, hydrology, instruments and methods of observation, and climatology and applications of meteorology.

Secretary-General: Aksel Wiin-Nielsen.

Headquarters: 41, avenue Giuseppe-Motta, 1211 Geneva 20, Switzerland.

International Maritime Organization

The convention establishing the INTERNATIONAL MARITIME ORGANIZATION (IMO) (formerly called the Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization) was drawn up in 1948 at a United Nations maritime conference held in Geneva. The Convention came into force on 17 March 1958, when it was ratified by 21 States, including seven with at least one million gross tons of shipping each.

Aims and activities. The aims and purposes of IMO are to provide machinery for co-operation and exchange of information among Governments on technical matters affecting shipping engaged in international trade; to encourage the general adoption of the highest practicable standards in matters concerning maritime safety, efficiency of navigation and the prevention and control of marine pollution from ships, and to deal with legal questions related to those matters; and to encourage the removal of discriminatory action and of unnecessary restrictions by Governments affecting shipping engaged in international trade.

IMO provides a forum for member Governments and interested organizations to exchange information on, and discuss and endeavour to solve problems connected with, technical, legal and other questions concerning shipping and the prevention of marine pollution by ships. As a result of such discussions, IMO has adopted a number of conventions and recommendations which Governments have adopted and which have entered into force. Among these are international conventions for the safety of life at sea, the prevention of marine pollution by ships, the training and certification of seafarers and the prevention of collisions at sea.

In addition to conventions and other formal treaty instruments, IMO has adopted several hundred recommendations dealing with a wide range of subjects, such as maritime dangerous goods, signals, safety for fishermen and fishing vessels and safety of nuclear merchant ships. While not legally binding, these recommendations constitute codes or recommended practices and provide guidance to Governments in framing national regulations.

Administration. The Assembly, consisting of all member States, is the supreme governing organ of IMO. It meets every two years to approve the biennial work programme and budget of IMO and to adopt recommendations on regulations concerning maritime safety, prevention of marine pollution and other matters.

The 24-member Council, elected by the Assembly for two-year terms, is the governing body between the biennial sessions of the Assembly. An increase in the size of the Council to 32 members will be effected upon the entry into force of amendments to the IMO Convention adopted in 1979. There are four principal committees—on maritime safety, legal matters, marine environment protection and technical co-operation—which submit reports or recommendations to the Assembly through the Council.

Secretary-General: Chandrika Prasad Srivastava.

Headquarters: 4 Albert Embankment, London SE1 7SR, England.

World Intellectual Property Organization

The WORLD INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY ORGANIZATION (WIPO) had its origins in the 1883 Paris Convention for the Protection of Industrial Property and the 1886 Berne Convention for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works. The Convention establishing WIPO was signed in 1967 and entered into force in 1970. WIPO became a specialized agency of the United Nations on 17 December 1974.

Aims and activities. The main objectives of WIPO are to maintain and increase respect for intellectual property throughout the world, in order to favour industrial and cultural development by stimulating creative activity and facilitating the transfer of technology and the dissemination of literary and artistic works. Intellectual property comprises two main branches: industrial property, chiefly inventions, trademarks and industrial designs; and copyright, chiefly for literary, musical, artistic, photographic and cinematographic works.

To aid in the protection of intellectual property, WIPO promotes the wider acceptance of existing treaties and their revision, where necessary, encourages the conclusion of new treaties and assists in the development of national legislation; gives legal-technical assistance to developing countries; assembles and disseminates information; and maintains services for international registration or other administrative co-operation among the member States of the "Unions" which WIPO administers and which are founded on treaties, conventions and agreements dating back to 1883.

Administration. WIPO has a Conference of all member States and a General Assembly, composed of those member States which are also members of the Paris or Berne Unions. The governing bodies of WIPO and the Unions administered by WIPO (nine of which have their own intergovernmental organs) normally meet in joint session to adopt their programmes and budgets and to discuss and decide policy.

Director-General: Arpad Bogsch.

Headquarters: 34, chemin des Colombettes, 1211 Geneva 20, Switzerland.

International Fund for Agricultural Development

The agreement establishing the INTERNATIONAL FUND FOR AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT (IFAD) was adopted on 13 June 1976 at a United Nations conference. It was opened for signature on 20 December 1976, following the attainment of initial pledges of $1 billion, and entered into force on 30 November 1977.

Aims and activities. The main purpose of IFAD is to mobilize additional resources to help developing countries improve their food production and nutrition. IFAD deals exclusively with agriculture—including livestock, fisheries, processing and storage—and concentrates on rural areas where the vast majority of the people in the developing world live and work. Its primary goal is to help efforts to end the chronic hunger and malnutriton suffered by at least 20 per cent of the people of Africa, Asia and Latin America.

IFAD lends money—most of it on highly concessional or low-interest terms—for projects which will have a significant impact on improving food production in developing countries, particularly for the benefit of the poorest sections of the rural populations. It seeks to apply its resources as part of an effort to bring small farmers and the landless into the development process. Thus, the Fund is concerned not only with production objectives but with the impact each project may have on employment, nutrition and income distribution.

Loan operations of IFAD fall into two groups: projects initiated by the Fund and projects "co-financed" with other financial and development institutions, such as the World Bank and IDA and the various development banks (African, Asian, Inter-American, Islamic). IFAD loans represent only a part of total project costs; the Governments concerned contribute a share.

IFAD projects include irrigation and water control, integrated rural development, agricultural settlement and development, agricultural credit to small farmers, livestock development and fertilizer supply and distribution.

Administration. The Fund's operations are directed by the Governing Council, on which all member States are represented, each of the three categories of members (developed countries, oil-exporting developing countries and other developing countries) having the same number of votes. Thus, the donor countries hold two thirds of the total number of votes and the developing countries, at the same time, hold two thirds of the votes. Current operations are overseen by the Executive Board, composed of 18 Executive Directors, six from each of the three constituent categories, and 18 alternates, and chaired by the President of the Fund.

President: Abdelmuhsin M. Al-Sudeary.

Headquarters: Via del Serafico 107, 00142 Rome, Italy.

General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade

The GENERAL AGREEMENT ON TARIFFS AND TRADE (GATT) is a multilateral agreement, in force since 1 January 1948, which lays down rules for international trade. It is subscribed to by 88 Governments, which together account for more than four fifths of world trade.

Aims and activities. The basic aim of GATT is to liberalize world trade and place it on a secure basis, thereby contributing to economic growth and development and the welfare of the world's peoples.

It is the principal international body concerned with negotiating the reduction of trade barriers and with international trade relations. GATT is thus both a code of rules and a forum in which countries can discuss and overcome their trade problems and negotiate to enlarge world trading opportunities.

GATT's basic principles are that trade should be conducted on the basis of non-discrimination (the "most-favoured-nation" clause); that domestic industry should be protected only through the customs tariff and not through quantitative restrictions or other measures; that tariffs should be reduced through multilateral negotiations and be "bound" against subsequent increase; and that member countries (contracting parties) should consult together to overcome trade problems.

A special chapter of the General Agreement deals with trade and development, and other articles of the Agreement also recognize the special trade problems of developing countries. The International Trade Centre, established by GATT in 1964, assists developing countries in the promotion of their export trade. Operated jointly with UNCTAD *(see page 58)* since 1968, it provides information and advice on export markets and marketing techniques and helps in establishing export services and training personnel.

Trade negotiations in GATT over the years have brought about reductions in tariffs and other trade barriers. The latest, the Tokyo Round negotiations of 1973-1979, covered tariffs on industrial and agricultural products; an improved legal framework for the conduct of world trade; the reduction and improved surveillance of non-tariff measures affecting world trade; agreements on bovine meat, dairy and tropical products; amendments to the GATT anti-dumping code; and an agreement on world trade in civil aircraft.

Administration. The highest body of GATT is the Session of Contracting Parties (member States), held annually. GATT decisions are generally arrived at by consensus, not by vote. On the rare occasions that voting takes place, each contracting party has one vote. Between sessions of the Contracting Parties, the Council of Representatives is authorized to act on both routine and urgent matters.

Director-General: Arthur Dunkel.

Headquarters. Centre William Rappard, 154 Rue de Lausanne, 1211 Geneva 21, Switzerland.

APPENDICES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ECA	Economic Commission for Africa
ECE	Economic Commission for Europe
ECLA	Economic Commission for Latin America
ECWA	Economic Commission for Western Asia
ESCAP	Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
GATT	General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade
IAEA	International Atomic Energy Agency
IBRD	International Bank for Reconstruction and Development
ICAO	International Civil Aviation Organization
IDA	International Development Association
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IFC	International Finance Corporation
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IMO	International Maritime Organization
ITU	International Telecommunication Union
UNCHS	United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (Habitat)
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDOF	United Nations Disengagement Observer Force
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNDRO	Office of the United Nations Disaster Relief Co-ordinator
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFICYP	United Nations Peace-keeping Force in Cyprus
UNFPA	United Nations Fund for Population Activities
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNIDIR	United Nations Institute for Disarmament Research
UNIDO	United Nations Industrial Development Organization
UNIFIL	United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon
UNITAR	United Nations Institute for Training and Research
UNMOGIP	United Nations Military Observer Group in India and Pakistan
UNRISD	United Nations Research Institute for Social Development
UNRWA	United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East
UNSO	United Nations Sudano-Sahelian Office
UNTSO	United Nations Truce Supervision Organization in Palestine
UNU	United Nations University
UNV	United Nations Volunteers
UPU	Universal Postal Union
WFC	World Food Council
WFP	World Food Programme
WHO	World Health Organization
WIPO	World Intellectual Property Organization
WMO	World Meteorological Organization

GROWTH OF UNITED NATIONS MEMBERSHIP, 1945-1982

Year	Number	Original Member States
1945	51	Argentina, Australia, Belgium, Bolivia. Brazil, Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic, Canada, Chile, China, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Ethiopia, France, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, India, Iran, Iraq, Lebanon, Liberia, Luxembourg, Mexico, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Norway, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Saudi Arabia, South Africa, Syria, Turkey, Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Venezuela, Yugoslavia
		New Member States
1946	55	Afghanistan, Iceland, Sweden, Thailand
1947	57	Pakistan, Yemen
1948	58	Burma
1949	59	Israel
1950	60	Indonesia
1955	76	Albania, Austria, Bulgaria, Democratic Kampuchea, Finland, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Jordan, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Nepal, Portugal, Romania, Spain, Sri Lanka
1956	80	Japan, Morocco, Sudan, Tunisia
1957	82	Ghana, Malaysia
1958	83	Guinea
1960	100	Benin, Central African Republic, Chad, Congo, Cyprus, Gabon, Ivory Coast, Madagascar, Mali, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Somalia, Togo, United Republic of Cameroon, Upper Volta, Zaire
1961	104	Mauritania, Mongolia, Sierra Leone, United Republic of Tanzania
1962	110	Algeria, Burundi, Jamaica, Rwanda, Trinidad and Tobago, Uganda
1963	112	Kenya, Kuwait
1964	115	Malawi, Malta, Zambia
1965	118	Gambia, Maldives, Singapore
1966	122	Barbados, Botswana, Guyana, Lesotho
1967	123	Democratic Yemen
1968	126	Equatorial Guinea, Mauritius, Swaziland
1970	127	Fiji
1971	132	Bahrain, Bhutan, Oman, Qatar, United Arab Emirates
1973	135	Bahamas, Federal Republic of Germany, German Democratic Republic
1974	138	Bangladesh, Grenada, Guinea-Bissau
1975	144	Cape Verde, Comoros, Mozambique, Papua New Guinea, Sao Tome and Principe, Suriname
1976	147	Angola, Samoa, Seychelles
1977	149	Djibouti, Viet Nam
1978	151	Dominica, Solomon Islands
1979	152	Saint Lucia
1980	154	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Zimbabwe
1981	157	Antigua and Barbuda, Belize, Vanuatu
1982	157	(No new Members)

UNITED NATIONS MEMBER STATES

(at 31 December 1982)

Member State	*Date of Admission*	*Scale of Assessments (per cent)*	*Population (1981) (est.)*
Afghanistan	19 November 1946	0.01	16,360,000
Albania	14 December 1955	0.01	2,800,000
Algeria	8 October 1962	0.13	19,590,000
Angola	1 December 1976	0.01	7,260,000
Antigua and Barbuda	11 November 1981	0.01	77,000
Argentina	24 October 1945	0.71	28,090,000
Australia	1 November 1945	1.57	14,860,000
Austria	14 December 1955	0.75	7,510,000
Bahamas	18 September 1973	0.01	250,000
Bahrain	21 September 1971	0.01	320,000
Bangladesh	17 September 1974	0.03	90,630,000
Barbados	9 December 1966	0.01	270,000
Belgium	27 December 1945	1.28	9,860,000
Belize	25 September 1981	0.01	170,000
Benin[1]	20 September 1960	0.01	3,640,000
Bhutan	21 September 1971	0.01	1,330,000
Bolivia	14 November 1945	0.01	5,760,000
Botswana	17 October 1966	0.01	850,000
Brazil	24 October 1945	1.39	121,550,000
Bulgaria	14 December 1955	0.18	8,890,000
Burma	19 April 1948	0.01	36,170,000
Burundi	18 September 1962	0.01	4,350,000
Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic	24 October 1945	0.36	9,670,000
Canada	9 November 1945	3.08	24,210,000
Cape Verde	16 September 1975	0.01	330,000
Central African Republic	20 September 1960	0.01	2,350,000
Chad	20 September 1960	0.01	4,550,000
Chile	24 October 1945	0.07	11,290,000
China[2]	24 October 1945	0.88	1,007,760,000
Colombia	5 November 1945	0.11	28,780,000
Comoros	12 November 1975	0.01	370,000
Congo	20 September 1960	0.01	1,580,000
Costa Rica	2 November 1945	0.02	2,270,000
Cuba	24 October 1945	0.09	9,770,000
Cyprus	20 September 1960	0.01	640,000
Czechoslovakia	24 October 1945	0.76	15,310,000
Democratic Kampuchea[3]	14 December 1955	0.01	6,830,000
Democratic Yemen	14 December 1967	0.01	2,030,000
Denmark	24 October 1945	0.75	5,120,000
Djibouti	20 September 1977	0.01	320,000
Dominica	18 December 1978	0.01	77,000
Dominican Republic	24 October 1945	0.03	5,430,000
Ecuador	21 December 1945	0.02	8,640,000
Egypt[4]	24 October 1945	0.07	43,470,000
El Salvador	24 October 1945	0.01	4,940,000
Equatorial Guinea	12 November 1968	0.01	370,000

Member State	*Date of Admission*	*Scale of Assessments (per cent)*	*Population (1981) (est.)*
Ethiopia	13 November 1945	0.01	32,160,000
Fiji	13 October 1970	0.01	640,000
Finland	14 December 1955	0.48	4,800,000
France	24 October 1945	6.51	53,960,000
Gabon	20 September 1960	0.02	560,000
Gambia	21 September 1965	0.01	620,000
German Democratic Republic	18 September 1973	1.39	16,740,000
Germany, Federal Republic of	18 September 1973	8.54	61,670,000
Ghana	8 March 1957	0.02	12,060,000
Greece	25 October 1945	0.40	9,710,000
Grenada	17 September 1974	0.01	110,000
Guatemala	21 November 1945	0.02	7,480,000
Guinea	12 December 1958	0.01	5,150,000
Guinea-Bissau	17 September 1974	0.01	580,000
Guyana	20 September 1966	0.01	900,000
Haiti	24 October 1945	0.01	5,100,000
Honduras	17 December 1945	0.01	3,820,000
Hungary	14 December 1955	0.23	10,710,000
Iceland	19 November 1946	0.03	230,000
India	30 October 1945	0.36	683,810,000
Indonesia	28 September 1950	0.13	150,520,000
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	24 October 1945	0.58	39,320,000
Iraq	21 December 1945	0.12	13,530,000
Ireland	14 December 1955	0.18	3,440,000
Israel	11 May 1949	0.23	3,950,000
Italy	14 December 1955	3.74	57,200,000
Ivory Coast	20 September1960	0.03	8,300,000
Jamaica	18 September 1962	0.02	2,220,000
Japan	18 December 1956	10.32	117,650,000
Jordan	14 December 1955	0.01	3,360,000
Kenya	16 December 1963	0.01	17,150,000
Kuwait	14 May 1963	0.25	1,460,000
Lao People's Democratic Republic	14 December 1955	0.01	3,810,000
Lebanon	24 October 1945	0.02	2,690,000
Lesotho	17 October 1966	0.01	1,370,000
Liberia	2 November 1945	0.01	2,040,000
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	14 December 1955	0.26	3,100,000
Luxembourg	24 October 1945	0.06	360,000
Madagascar	20 September 1960	0.01	8,960,000
Malawi	1 December 1964	0.01	6,120,000
Malaysia[5]	17 September 1957	0.09	14,420,000
Maldives	21 September 1965	0.01	160,000
Mali	28 September 1960	0.01	7,160,000
Malta	1 December 1964	0.01	370,000
Mauritania	27 October 1961	0.01	1,680,000
Mauritius	24 April 1968	0.01	940,000

Member State	*Date of Admission*	*Scale of Assessments (per cent)*	*Population (1981) (est.)*
Mexico	7 November 1945	0.88	71,190,000
Mongolia	27 October 1961	0.01	1,710,000
Morocco	12 November 1956	0.05	20,650,000
Mozambique	16 September 1975	0.01	10,760,000
Nepal	14 December 1955	0.01	14,620,000
Netherlands	10 December 1945	1.78	14,240,000
New Zealand	24 October 1945	0.26	3,130,000
Nicaragua	24 October 1945	0.01	2,820,000
Niger	20 September 1960	0.01	5,480,000
Nigeria	7 October 1960	0.19	79,680,000
Norway	27 November 1945	0.51	4,100,000
Oman	7 October 1971	0.01	920,000
Pakistan	30 September 1947	0.06	84,580,000
Panama	13 November 1945	0.02	1,940,000
Papua New Guinea	10 October 1975	0.01	3,010,000
Paraguay	24 October 1945	0.01	3,270,000
Peru	31 October 1945	0.07	18,280,000
Philippines	24 October 1945	0.09	49,530,000
Poland	24 October 1945	0.72	35,900,000
Portugal	14 December 1955	0.18	9,930,000
Qatar	21 September 1971	0.03	250,000
Romania	14 December 1955	0.19	22,460,000
Rwanda	18 September 1962	0.01	4,950,000
Saint Lucia	18 September 1979	0.01	120,000
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	16 September 1980	0.01	98,000
Samoa	15 December 1976	0.01	160,000
Sao Tome and Principe	16 September 1975	0.01	86,000
Saudi Arabia	24 October 1945	0.86	9,320,000
Senegal	28 September 1960	0.01	5,810,000
Seychelles	21 September 1976	0.01	66,000
Sierra Leone	27 September 1961	0.01	3,570,000
Singapore	21 September 1965	0.09	2,440,000
Solomon Islands	19 September 1978	0.01	240,000
Somalia	20 September 1960	0.01	4,900,000
South Africa	7 November 1945	0.41	30,130,000
Spain	14 December 1955	1.93	37,650,000
Sri Lanka	14 December 1955	0.01	14,990,000
Sudan	12 November 1956	0.01	18,900,000
Suriname	4 December 1975	0.01	400,000
Swaziland	24 September 1968	0.01	570,000
Sweden	19 November 1946	1.32	8,320,000
Syrian Arab Republic	24 October 1945	0.03	9,310,000
Thailand	16 December 1946	0.08	48,130,000
Togo	20 September 1960	0.01	2,710,000
Trinidad and Tobago	18 September 1962	0.03	1,190,000
Tunisia	12 November 1956	0.03	6,510,000
Turkey	24 October 1945	0.32	46,380,000

Member State	*Date of Admission*	*Scale of Assessments (per cent)*	*Population (1981) (est.)*
Uganda	25 October 1962	0.01	13,620,000
Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic	24 October 1945	1.32	50,220,000
Union of Soviet Socialist Republics	24 October 1945	10.54	267,700,000
United Arab Emirates	9 December 1971	0.16	760,000
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland	24 October 1945	4.67	55,830,000
United Republic of Cameroon	20 September 1960	0.01	8,650,000
United Republic of Tanzania[6]	14 December 1961	0.01	18,510,000
United States of America	24 October 1945	25.00	229,810,000
Upper Volta	20 September 1960	0.01	7,090,000
Uruguay	18 December 1945	0.04	2,930,000
Vanuatu	15 September 1981	0.01	122,000
Venezuela	15 November 1945	0.55	14,310,000
Viet Nam	20 September 1977	0.02	54,970,000
Yemen	30 September 1947	0.01	5,940,000
Yugoslavia	24 October 1945	0.46	22,520,000
Zaire	20 September 1960	0.01	29,100,000
Zambia	1 December 1964	0.01	5,960,000
Zimbabwe	25 August 1980	0.02	7,600,000

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[1] Formerly Dahomey.

[2] By resolution 2758 (XXVI) of 25 October 1971, the General Assembly decided "to restore all its rights to the People's Republic of China and to recognize the representatives of its Government as the only legitimate representatives of China to the United Nations, and to expel forthwith the representatives of Chiang Kai-shek from the place they unlawfully occupy at the United Nations and in all the organizations related to it."

[3] Formerly Cambodia.

[4] Egypt and Syria were original Members of the United Nations from 24 October 1945. Following a plebiscite on 21 January 1958, the United Arab Republic was established by a union of Egypt and Syria and continued as a single Member. On 13 October 1961, Syria resumed its status as an independent State and simultaneously its United Nations membership. On 2 September 1971, the United Arab Republic changed its name to Arab Republic of Egypt.

[5] The Federation of Malaya joined the United Nations on 17 September 1957. On 16 September 1963, its name was changed to Malaysia, following the admission to the new federation of Singapore, Sabah (North Borneo) and Sarawak. Singapore became an independent State on 9 August 1965 and a United Nations Member on 21 September 1965.

[6] Tanganyika was a United Nations Member from 14 December 1961 and Zanzibar was a Member from 16 December 1963. Following the ratification on 26 April 1964 of Articles of Union between Tanganyika and Zanzibar, the United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar continued as a single Member, changing its name to the United Republic of Tanzania on 1 November 1964.

UNITED NATIONS INFORMATION CENTRES AND SERVICES

Centres and Services in Africa

ACCRA—United Nations Information Centre, Liberia and Maxwell Roads (P.O. Box 2339), Accra, Ghana
Services to: Ghana, Sierra Leone

ADDIS ABABA—Information Service, Economic Commission for Africa, Africa Hall (P.O. Box 3001), Addis Ababa, Ethiopia
Services to: Ethiopia

ALGIERS—United Nations Information Centre, 19, Avenue Chahid El Waly Mustapha Sayed (Boîte Postale 823), Algiers, Algeria
Services to: Algeria

ANTANANARIVO—United Nations Information Centre, 22, rue Rainitovo Antsahavola (Boîte Postale 1348), Antananarivo, Madagascar
Services to: Madagascar

BUJUMBURA—United Nations Information Centre, Avenue de la Poste, 7, Place de l'Indépendance (Boîte Postale 2160), Bujumbura, Burundi
Services to: Burundi

CAIRO—United Nations Information Centre, 1, Osoris Street, Tagher Building (Garden City) (Boîte Postale 262), Cairo, Egypt
Services to: Egypt, Saudi Arabia, Yemen

DAKAR—Centre d'Information des Nations Unies, 9, Allées Robert Delmas (Boîte Postale 154), Dakar, Senegal
Services to: Cape Verde, Gambia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Ivory Coast, Mauritania, Senegal

DAR ES SALAAM—United Nations Information Centre, Independence Avenue, Matasalamat Building, First Floor (P.O. Box 9224), Dar es Salaam, United Republic of Tanzania
Services to: Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania

HARARE—United Nations Information Centre, Lenbern House, Moffat Street (P.O. Box 4408), Harare, Zimbabwe
Services to: Zimbabwe

KHARTOUM—United Nations Information Centre, Al Qasr Ave., Street No. 15, Block 3, House No. 3, Khartoum East (P.O. Box 1992), Khartoum, Sudan
Services to: Somalia, Sudan

KINSHASA—United Nations Information Centre, Bâtiment Deuxième République, Boulevard du 30 Juin (Boîte Postale 7248), Kinshasa, Zaire
Services to: Zaire

LAGOS—United Nations Information Centre, 17 Kingsway, Ikoyi (P.O. Box 1068), Lagos, Nigeria
Services to: Nigeria

LOME—United Nations Information Centre, Rue Albert Sarraut, Coin Avenue de Gaulle (Boîte Postale 911), Lome, Togo
Services to: Benin, Togo

LUSAKA—United Nations Information Centre, P.O. Box 32905, Lusaka, Zambia
Services to: Botswana, Malawi, Namibia, Swaziland, Zambia

MASERU—United Nations Information Centre, Corner Hilton Road, Opposite Sanlam Centre, Kingsway (P.O.Box 301), Maseru, 100 Lesotho
Services to: Lesotho

MONROVIA—United Nations Information Centre, LBDI Building, Main Road, Congotown (P.O. Box 274), Monrovia, Liberia
Services to: Liberia

NAIROBI—United Nations Information Centre, P.O. Box 30218, Nairobi, Kenya
Services to: Kenya, Seychelles

OUAGADOUGOU—United Nations Information Centre, 218, Rue de la Gare (Boîte Postale 135), Ouagadougou, Haute Volta
Services to: Chad, Mali, Niger, Upper Volta

RABAT—United Nations Information Centre, Angle Charia Moulay Hassan et Zankat Assafi ("Casier ONU"), Rabat-Chellah, Morocco
Services to: Morocco

TRIPOLI—c/o United Nations Development Programme, 67-71 Turkiya Street (P.O. Box 286), Tripoli, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Services to: Libyan Arab Jamahiriya

TUNIS—United Nations Information Centre, 61, Boulevard Bab-Benat (Boîte Postale 863), Tunis, Tunisia
Services to: Tunisia

YAOUNDE—United Nations Information Centre, Immeuble Kamden, rue Joseph Clere (Boîte Postale 836), Yaoundé, United Republic of Cameroon
Services to: Central African Republic, Gabon, United Republic of Cameroon

Centres and Services in the Americas

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